UNITED STATES SPORTS ACADEMY

A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION OF EMPLOYEES IN TAIWANESE HEALTH CLUBS

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By

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ABSTRACT

Cheng, Kuei-Mei, for the Doctor of Sport Management degree at the United States Sports Academy, presented in June, 2003. Title: A Structural Equation Modeling Analysis of Leadership Behavior, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction of Employees in Taiwanese Health Clubs. The faculty project director is Dr. Cynthia E. Ryder.

In recent years, health clubs in Taiwan, Republic of China, have faced an increasingly competitive environment. Leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been considered as three important factors for business survival in this competitive environment. Prior research shows that leadership behavior can have a positive influence on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees. The purpose of this study was to establish a comprehensive causal model for leadership behavior, organizational commitment and job satisfaction and to examine it with empirical data.

The instruments selected to collect data were the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), modified from the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales; the Leadership Practices Scale (LPS), modified from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI); and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), modified from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS); as well as a demographic survey. The sample size included 469 non-management employees from 30 health club branches that were randomly selected from a pool of 129 recreational sport/fitness clubs.

The data received from the survey were analyzed using the Software Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSSPC+) 10.0 and LISREL 8.52. Frequency and percentage were used to calculated demographic variables in order to understand the personal characteristics of the sample. Structural equation modeling was used to test the

validity of the constructs of leadership behavior, organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as to examine the causal relationships among them.

The results showed that the measurement model for leadership practices was a valid and reliable model. Improvement of predictive validity and parsimony of the model also needs to be tested in consideration for future research. The measurement of organizational commitment was a saturated model. Except for affective commitment, all of the variables were reliable. In summary, the measurement model for organizational commitment was valid and fairly reliable. The results showed that the measurement model for job satisfaction was acceptable. Although the model could be perceived to be valid internally, it is not parsimonious and also does not have good predictive validity.

In testing structural relationships, the results showed that leadership practices directly influence (a standardized coefficient value of 0.34) job satisfaction and indirectly influence (a standardized coefficient value of 0.36) it through organizational commitment. The results also showed that organizational commitment directly influences (a standardized coefficient value of 0.55) job satisfaction. It is worth noticing that leadership practices have a direct effect on job satisfaction, but the indirect effect is larger than its direct effect. This consequence indicates that organizational commitment could play an important role with employee intervention.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The success of any organization is dependent upon the collection of individuals, including leaders and subordinates, and the amount of effort each individual puts into it. In an attempt to understand organizational effectiveness, many researchers and practitioners have developed various studies to determine theories regarding leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. It is important to recognize the different types of leadership practices and how they affect organizational commitment and job satisfaction in an organization. The field of "health clubs" is considered a popular environment for developing and encouraging future leaders and organizations, and is a new and growing field in Taiwan as citizens begin to express more interest in leisure activities. Since this is a new area in Taiwan, administrators need to know what will help their organizations flourish.

One reason for examining types of leadership is because such research can help identify critical skills needed by leaders in today's world. Effective leadership can be the key to success in many companies. In their review of the literature, Wallace and Weese (1995) found ineffective leadership to be "the major cause of declining industrial productivity and a downward positioning of North American corporations on a global scale" (p. 182).

It is important to identify types of leadership that enhance employees' organizational commitment and job satisfaction so that managers can work to maximize the productivity of employees. According to McNeese-Smith (1996) research indicates that employees who experience more job satisfaction are more likely to stay on the job and be productive. She also states that job dissatisfaction "is directly related to absenteeism, grievances, and turnover and is very costly to the organization" (p. 161).

Organizational commitment has also been found to have a profound impact on employee turnover and productivity. In a study involving salespersons, Agarwal et al. (1999) states that managers should understand "the relationships between different types of leadership behaviors and salespersons' organizational commitment" in order to reduce the potential for misunderstandings and possible undesirable behavior by employees, which can lead to dissatisfaction and higher turnover (p. 727).

It is also important to explore the relationships between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In existing research, there is evidence to suggest that the two variables have some type of causal relationship, however, there have been studies with conflicting viewpoints as to the nature of this relationship. Although some researchers have indicated that organizational commitment has a causal effect on job satisfaction, others contend that the opposite is true and that organizational commitment happens as a result of job satisfaction. Although most researchers agree that the two do have some type of effect on each other, a few others feel that the two are distinct variables, each having no impact on the other. In order to be most effective, it would benefit administrators to better understand the causal relationships between these two constructs as well as how these relationships affect the direct and/or indirect impact that leadership style can have on each of them.

The literature review revealed a large amount of material relating to leadership behavior, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction, however, very little was discovered that explored the relationship among all three of these variables. There also was very little information to be found regarding these concepts within Taiwanese health clubs.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate leadership behaviors, organizational commitment and job satisfaction within Taiwanese health club settings in order to advance the understanding of these concepts as well as to comprehend the relationships among them. A model was developed to gain a better understanding of the predictability of organizational commitment and/or job satisfaction based on leadership behavior. The study examined the causal relationships that exist between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in order to determine what direct and/or indirect impact leadership has on each of them.

Research Hypotheses

This study explored the following research hypotheses:

H1: Leadership practices directly influence job satisfaction and indirectly influence it through organizational commitment.

H2: Organizational commitment directly influences job satisfaction.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following expert definitions are offered:

Administrators - Administrators in this study are defined as the individuals responsible for the supervision of employees, facility management, planning, budget preparation, and leadership at health clubs. The terms administrators, supervisors, managers, and leaders are used interchangeably throughout this study.

Challenging the Process - Challenging the process involves the leader looking for new innovations in order to change the status quo within an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Enabling Others to Act - Leaders who enable others to act, work to create an atmosphere of trust and respect in order to build collaborative teams. (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Encouraging the Heart - A leader who encourages the heart recognizes the achievements or contributions of his or her employees and provides appropriate rewards in order to motivate employees (Kouzes & Posner 1988).

Health Club – In this study, the term health club refers to private for-profit facilities in Taiwan that provide a variety of services to individuals who have a membership with the club. These services may include access to physical fitness equipment, aerobic classes, aquatic recreation and fitness activities, health consultation, and spa/sauna facilities. The health club may also provide assistance in developing an appropriate nutritional and fitness routine through the use of personal trainers.

Inspiring a Shared Vision - Inspiring a shared vision involves a leader inspiring or motivating employees to work towards a more ideal vision of the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Job Satisfaction – Job satisfaction refers to the feelings or attitudes a person has about his or her job.

Leadership Behavior – In this study, the term leadership behavior refers to those behaviors exhibited by administrators in the course of facility planning, budgeting, and supervising employees in the health club setting. For the purposes of this study there were five leadership behaviors that were investigated: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The terms leadership behavior and leadership style will be used interchangeably throughout much of this study.

Modeling the Way - Modeling the way involves the leader providing an appropriate and effective example for others to follow (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Organizational Commitment – Organizational commitment is defined as the " relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979).

Scope of the Study

The target population of this study included the personnel of 94 Taiwanese health clubs, many of which had several branches. The researcher randomly selected thirty branches from within 94 health clubs with a total of 129 branches in which to distribute the surveys. The sample size included 469 non-management employees from within these thirty branches. The sample included both full- and part-time staff. The instruments selected to collect data were the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), modified from the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scale; the Leadership Practices Scale (LPS), modified from the Leadership Practices Inventory

(LPI); and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), modified from the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS); as well as a demographic survey. Surveys were distributed in person to the subjects at the participating health clubs. The goal of this study was to collect data about administrators' leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction of surveyed employees, and was conducted in January and February 2003 at the participating health clubs throughout Taiwan, Republic of China.

Delimitations

The following delimitations were applicable to the study:

1. Demographic variables of the survey sample were collected for descriptive purposes only.
2. A random sample of health clubs (N=30) was drawn from a target population of 129 health clubs in Taiwan.
3. Linear Structural Relationship (LISREL) was used to test the model fit.
4. The research instruments used in this study included the following: (a) the Leadership Practices Scale (LPS), (b) the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), and (c) Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS).

Limitations

Four limitations were identified for this research:

1. Participants of this study may not have understood the objectives and importance of this research, and may not have responded with accurate and well-thought answers.
2. The lack of control over the environment in which the participants completed the survey may have affected the findings of this study.

3. The variations in organizational size may have affected the findings of this study.
4. The findings of this study may not be able to be generalized to all administrators and employees of all Taiwanese health clubs because of sample size limitations due to budgeting concerns.

Assumptions ~~of the Study.~~

The following assumptions were made regarding this study:

1. This study assumed that the responses of employees would be honest reflections of their perceptions of their leader's behaviors and their own organizational commitment and job satisfaction.
2. This study assumed that all responses would not be biased or influenced by others.
3. The study assumed that the all respondents would understand the content of the questionnaires and demographic survey.
4. This study assumed that the author would be able to make an exact or near exact translation of all questionnaires and demographic survey from English to Chinese.
5. The distributions of the randomly selected subjects were assumed to be normal and provide a valid representation of the population of the study.

Significance of the Study

The data collected from this study may provide needed feedback to health club administrators in Taiwan, in addition to sport managers in other parts of the world. Few research studies have been conducted in Taiwan to examine applied leadership behaviors and how they affect organizational commitment and job satisfaction among employees in an organization. Therefore, this study will make a valuable contribution to existing literature on leadership behavior, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Moreover, since there is a lack of research in this region, data collected in Taiwan, where social and cultural differences are different from those in earlier studies, may produce new findings, enabling administrators to become more innovative, experimental, and communicative with employees. This was the first study to investigate the relationships between leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction within Taiwanese health clubs. This will be a significant contribution to the Taiwanese health club industry, because the widespread development of these facilities is a relatively new occurrence in that country.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership styles of selected administrators, organizational commitment of selected employees, and job satisfaction of employees surveyed in health clubs throughout Taiwan, Republic of China.

The review of related literature will briefly discuss early studies of leadership theories through several phases including: (a) trait theory; (b) behavioral or style theory; and (c) situational or contingency theory. The review will then discuss the transactional/transformational paradigm, which is the most recent. Also, it will look at the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, which includes: (a) affective commitment, (b) continuance commitment, and (c) normative commitment. This will be followed by a discussion of the various factors influencing job satisfaction, such as personal traits and motivation. Finally, a discussion about the impact of leadership behaviors on organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as the relationships between commitment and satisfaction will conclude this review.

Leadership

Introduction to Leadership

Before investigating findings of previous studies on leadership, it is first important to look at the various definitions of leadership itself. Fiedler defined leadership as "an interpersonal relation in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they direct and control his" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 11). He also indicated that the quality of an organization's leadership is a large part of the organization's success or failure, thus a leader could be seen as the key to organizational success. Similarly, Coffman stated, "a leader helps an organization or group grow and reach its potential" (1995, p. 9). Bryman defined leadership as involving "a social influence process in which a person steers members of the group towards a goal" (Bryman, 1986, p. 2). He also indicated that a leader's ability to motivate others was integral to the role of a leader, stating, "leadership is not simply a matter of effecting changes in other people's behavior, but has more to do with enhancing their voluntary compliance" (Bryman, 1986, p. 3). Kreitner gave a similar definition, stating that leadership "is defined as a social influence process in which the leader tries to obtain the voluntary participation of employees in an effort to reach organizational goals" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989, p. 475). He also felt that leadership involved more than having authority, that it "embraces many different managerial concepts including values, perception, motivation, reinforcement, socialization, power, politics, and communication" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989, p. 448).

Early Studies of Leadership Theories

Traits Theory

One of the earliest theories concerning leadership, the trait approach of the 1930s, was an attempt to identify the personal traits or characteristics that made a successful leader (Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996). This theory subscribed to the idea that leaders are born, not made. According to Bass, at the beginning of the twentieth century, "leaders were generally regarded as superior individuals who, as a result of fortunate inheritance or social adventure, became possessed of qualities and abilities that differentiated them from people in general" (Bass, 1981, p. 73). According to Siegel and Lane (1982), this approach made the assumption that leaders were "endowed with certain characteristics predisposing their effective leadership in widely ranging situations" (p. 323).

Decades of research produced a list of traits that were generally associated with leadership. Researchers argued that an effective leader would exhibit these types of traits in greater quantity than would non-leaders or followers. According to Vroom (1976) it was assumed that people would vary in the amount number of traits associated with effective leadership and that those differences were potentially measurable. The idea behind this type of research was that if it were possible to identify the particular traits that made up a natural leader, then acquiring good leadership in organizations would simply be a matter of screening people to determine which ones possessed these kinds of traits. According to Bass, these traits included: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation (Bass, 1996). Yukl (1989) explained that leaders were proposed to possess extraordinary abilities such as penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasive powers. Bryman (1986) separated leadership traits into three categories; physical factors, ability characteristics, and personality features. Physical factors were those such as height, weight, physique, and appearance. Ability characteristics included intelligence, fluency of speech, scholarship, and knowledge. Personality features were believed to include conservatism, introversion-extroversion, dominance, self-confidence, and emotional control (Bryman, 1986).

Bass (1990) indicated that the traits theory designated leadership as unidirectional because leaders were believed to possess qualities that allowed them to be differentiated from followers, but that the theory did not acknowledge "the extent to which leaders and followers have interactive effects by determining which qualities of followers are of consequence in a situation" (p. 12). In other words, this theory did not take into consideration that the qualities of the subordinates or differences in the situation may have had an effect on a leader's abilities. Later studies argued that traits were difficult to measure and results of these studies were generally inconclusive, thus using the trait approach was not enough to understand leadership. Stogdill briefly described this concept, stating:

> A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in constant flux and change (Stogdill, 1981, p. 67).

Behavioral Theories

The results of those studies as well as the inability of investigators to discern specific traits, which would permit discrimination between leaders and non-leaders, or between good and bad leaders, lead to the investigation of leadership behaviors or styles. This approach emphasized what leaders actually did on the job. Kreitner indicated that this phase of investigation arose out of an effort to develop better military leaders during the Second World War. The interest in leadership behaviors was undertaken in order to help researchers identify patterns of behavior that would enable leaders to effectively influence others (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989).

Fiedler described leadership behavior as "the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 36). He defined leadership style as "the underlying need-structure of the individual which motivates his behavior in various leadership situations" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 36). He argued that a leader's style was constant from situation to situation, while behaviors would change depending on the situation. Most researchers, however, used the two terms synonymously. Sashkin explained the common belief behind the behavioral theory in this manner "perhaps if someone were to act like a great leader, the act would become real" (Sashkin, 1986, p. 58). He speculated that this theory came about because at that time it was just becoming clear how leaders did behave.

Path-Goal theory.

One of the behavior theories that arose in the 1950's was called the Path-Goal theory of leadership. The name of the theory came about because the intent was to help employees stay on the right paths to meet goals and thus gain rewards. The idea was to discover why workers who came from similar backgrounds and were engaged in the same activity under comparable conditions had such variability in production. According to Georgopoulos et al. (1957) this theory was based on the notion that people in an organization had certain goals in common, "the achievement of which would satisfy certain corresponding needs" (p. 345). In this theory, the supervisor had a direct relationship with his or her subordinates. One of the behaviors associated with this theory was the initiating structure. This involved the degree to which the leader was involved in activities such as assigning specific tasks, clarifying his or her expectations, and scheduling work tasks. Another behavior leaders exhibited was leader consideration. This involved the leader promoting a supportive environment for subordinates by providing psychological support, warmth, and friendliness. The belief behind this theory was that the leader's behavior would motivate subordinates into increasing productivity. For example, if the supervisor worked to meet the needs of his or her subordinates, it would result in increased performance by the subordinates leading to a net increase in productivity and profit for the organization (House, 1971).

Organizational behavior modification approach.

Another behavioral theory arose in the 1980's, known as the organizational behavior modification approach. The main idea of this theory involved the concept of behaviors having consequences that would negatively or positively influence the probability of a behavior occurring again or with more frequency. After conducting an analysis to identify the antecedents to a behavior and the consequences that occurred as a result of that behavior, the leader would develop an intervention strategy. The goal of the intervention was to apply immediate positive intervention to strengthen and increase the behavior in question. Then the supervisor would conduct an evaluation to ensure the intervention plan was having the appropriate effects (Mosley, 1998).

Bryman (1986) discussed four areas of leadership behaviors: participative leadership, reward strategies, motivational strategies, and control strategies. Participative leadership involved how much influence a leader permitted subordinates to have in determining how the work should be done, how closely they should be supervised, and how far their views should be taken into consideration during decision-making. This type of leadership involved a "shift away from authoritarian, highly directive forms of leadership towards a broader range of individuals being allowed and encouraged to play a part in decision making" (Bryman, 1986, p. 87). Thus, participation was seen as way of motivating employees and has been positively linked to increased employee satisfaction with pay and job, less turnover, and better supervisor-employee relations (Bryman, 1986).

Reward strategies involved the use of non-material rewards that leaders provided for their subordinates. In this type of strategy there was a distinction between positive and negative leader reward behavior. Positive reward behaviors included: paying subordinates compliments for outstanding work, assisting employees with transfers if requested, and encouraging subordinates to do better if the supervisor felt that the individual is capable of doing so. Negative leader behaviors included; reprimanding employees whose work is not as good as others', recommendations of no pay increases for an individual if his or her work was below standard, and recommending no promotions for employees with average or below average performance. Bryman indicated that positive reward behaviors tended to lead to greater satisfaction and to an extent, better performance among subordinates. On the other hand, negative reward behaviors tended to be associated with a deleterious effect on both performance and satisfaction (Bryman, 1986).

Motivational strategies involved the plan of action a leader employed to create the appropriate organizational conditions so that subordinates would be motivated to better work performance. The more obvious motivational strategies involved financial compensation such as adopting policies by which wages and salaries are used to motivate desirable behavior. Some motivational strategies were very similar to the positive and negative reward strategies. Others involved the setting of specific performance goals meant to provide direction to subordinates. Having a feedback system in place helped subordinates to be aware of the level of adequacy of their performance. Feedback systems could include reports concerning profits, productivity, sales, and employee turnover, or devices such as performance evaluations and attitude surveys. Supervisors utilizing motivational strategies would also attempt to place employees in job situations that provided them with some amount of challenge. Bryman indicated that motivational strategies have been positively correlated with increased organizational effectiveness (Bryman, 1986).

Control strategies were related to the methods that leaders utilized to control their subordinates' behavior. Some of these, called obtrusive versus unobtrusive controls, included close supervision, directive supervision, punitive rewards, and taking an interest in subordinates. Situational versus personal control involved either situational controls such as changing the physical environment, or personal goals such as setting examples and establishing clear cut goals and standards. Bryman suggested that these types of controls were difficult to test as they appeared to have a great deal of overlap between them, and he gave no indication as to the effectiveness of these strategies (Bryman, 1986). Williams, on the other hand, stated that control strategies used by management had a direct effect on the success of the entire organization. For example, poor controls required that leaders spend too much time in direct supervisory relationships, causing resentment among subordinates. Effective controls, however, would allow employees to be competent and goal oriented, minimizing the need for personal supervision (Williams, 1982).

Leadership styles.

Bass (1990) discussed three different styles of leadership including authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. The authoritarian leader tended to use punitive rewards such as monetary penalties or negative evaluations to stimulate maximum performance from his or her subordinates. These leaders were concerned about what was needed to get the job done and discouraged input from subordinates to the decision making process. They also paid little attention to the values and needs of their employees. The authoritarian leader was seen as task-directed, issuing the rules, determining what needed to be done, and as using his or her power to obtain compliance from subordinates. They depended on their own knowledge and rank to problem-solve and to regulate the behavior of their employees (Bass, 1990).

The democratic leader on the other hand, was more concerned with the needs of his or her employees. This leader would ask for the opinions of his or her subordinates to help guide the decision making process. The democratic leader depended on the skills and knowledge of subordinates as well as his or her own interpersonal skills and knowledge for problem solving and for gaining employee compliance. This style had a larger focus on human relations than did the authoritarian style and was viewed as requiring more maturity from the leader in question (Bass, 1990).

The laissez-faire style of leadership was seen as a more passive style than authoritarian or democratic. This leader may abdicate his authority to other people, abstaining or withdrawing from responsibilities. A laissez-faire leader usually allowed his or her subordinates to continue on agreed upon paths without interfering or offering advice unless a problem arose. This leadership style had no particular emphasis on either tasks or relationships (Bass, 1990).

New research revealed that behaviors could be observed and results were more empirical than with the traits approach, however, the behavioral approach also had its shortcomings. Sashkin (1986) stated that the next thirty years "did not yield substantial evidence that leaders who behaved in a task-directed manner, while simultaneously behaving in a relationship-directed manner were especially successful or great" (p. 58). Thus researchers turned to situational factors "in the hope that different behavioral approaches might be effective in different situations" (Sashkin, 1986, p. 58). As Bass stated, "above and beyond personal attributes of consequence, the situation could make a difference" (Bass, 1981, p. 407), thus emerged the situational theories.

Situational Theories

Leadership practices involve the consideration of social interactions as well as changing environments. The Situational or Contingency theory of leadership recognized that there were various leadership styles that would work best for a specific setting. This approach "emphasizes the importance of contextual factors such as the leader's authority and discretion, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the attributes of subordinates, and the nature of the external environment" (Yukl, 1989, p. 261). According to Bass (1990), situationalists "view that the emergence of a great leader is a result of time, place, and circumstance" (p. 38).

Fiedler's contingency theory.

The most popular situational theory was the Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness developed by Fred E. Fiedler (Stogdill, 1981). With this theory Fiedler explained that organizational effectiveness was a result of the interaction of two factors: leadership style and situational favorableness. As Siegel and Lane (1982) described it, "effective leadership is a joint function of characteristics of the leader and features of the situation" (p. 323). In other words, one style of leadership was not any better than any other, or appropriate for all conditions. In fact, according to Fiedler (1967), the organization's performance would be "contingent upon the appropriate matching of leadership style and the degree of favorableness of the group situation for the leader, that is, the degree to which the situation provides the leader with influence over his group members" (p. 151). Thus, effectiveness could be improved by either changing the leader to fit the situation, or by changing the situation to fit the leader. According to Bass (1990), Fiedler emphasized "the need to place the person in the situation for which he or she is best suited" (p. 47).

The first major factor of the Contingency Theory, leadership style, was described as a system of interaction that took place between a leader and work group. The second major factor in Fiedler's theory was known as the "environmental variable", which included leader-follower relations, clarity of task, and position of power (Stogdill, 1981). According to this theory, a leader's performance depended just as much on the organization as it did on the leader's own attributes, thus in most cases a leader could not be considered effective or ineffective. Instead, a leader could be seen as one who tended to be effective in one situation and ineffective in another.

Although Fiedler used the terms situational and contingency as synonyms, others made a distinction between the two. Williams (1982) indicated that situational leadership involved analyzing the organizational environment before making decisions, while contingency management went a step further by making a relationship between these decisions and variables such as the leader's management skills, the nature of the work, and the abilities of the employees. He suggested that the contingency approach to leadership offered much more promise than the situational approach in promoting organizational effectiveness (Williams, 1982).

Fiedler's Contingency Theory, and its precedents, provided researchers with a further understanding of effective leadership, laying the groundwork for the most recent theory, the Transactional/Transformational Paradigm.

Transactional/Transformational Paradigm

Transactional Leadership

In the 1970's researchers began to view the relationship between superiors and subordinates as "a social exchange or negotiated transaction" (Bass, 1990, p. 333). Burns (1978) indicated transactional leadership motivated followers primarily through conditional rewards. Howell and Frost (1989) also offered the fact that these rewards were a result of reaching established goals and task accomplishment. Bass defined the transactional leader as one who "pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates' current material and psychic needs in return for 'contracted' services rendered by the subordinate" (Bass, 1985, p. 15). Transactional leadership could also be viewed as involving exchanges between leaders and followers that reflected more traditional values such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, and reciprocal obligation. The exchange would result in the employee's compliance in exchange for the leader's assistance in pointing the way to the attainment of mutual goals. Or as Burns explained it:

> Cooperation depends on the organization's ability to satisfy the self-interests of the employees. The employees do not identify with the organization, its vision, or mission. Leaders are negotiators and resource allocators in which the power and politics behind a request may be as important as its merit (Burns, 1978, p. 73).

Bass (1990) indicated that the transactional leader accomplished the aforementioned attainment of mutual goals and contributed to the adequacy of his or her subordinates' performance in five ways. The first involved the clarification of what was expected of the subordinates including the objective of their performances. In the second step, the supervisor would explain what the employees were to do in order to meet the expectations set forth. The third step involved the explanation of how the performance would be evaluated. Fourth, the supervisor would provide feedback to the employees regarding whether the objectives had been met. Finally, the supervisor would allocate rewards based on if the objectives were met (Bass, 1990).

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) proposed another contrasting leadership model, in which the "transforming" leader inspired followers to transcend their own self-interest for a higher goal, stating:

> But transforming leadership ultimately becomes *moral* in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leaders and led, and thus it has a

> transforming effect on both... Transcending leadership is dynamic leadership in the sense that the leaders throw themselves into a relationship with followers who will feel "elevated" by it and often become more active themselves, thereby creating new cadres or leaders (Burns, 1978, p. 78).

In addition, Burns (1978) suggested that these two leadership styles were distinct from one another, thus leaders were either transactional or transforming. In later studies, Bass (1996) expanded on this theory, replacing Burn's " transforming" label, with "transformational." The Transactional/Transformational Paradigm supported the idea that transformational leadership encouraged and enhanced transactional leadership, rather than opposing it. Fundamentally, all leaders were transactional, but some were also transformational. Bass described this concept as, "transformational and transactional leadership are likely to be displayed by the same individuals in different amounts and intensities" (Bass, 1985, p. 26).

In transactional leadership, leaders specified job expectations and the rewards for meetings those expectations. According to the paradigm, such interactions could have positive effects on followers through rewards and encouragement of task accomplishment. However, transformational leadership achieved levels of effects that transcended those produced by transactional exchanges (Bass, 1996). The transformational leader motivated subordinates to do more than they originally expected to do (Bass, 1985). This leader asked followers to:

> transcend their own self-interest for the good of the group, organization, or society; to consider their longer-term needs to develop themselves, rather than the needs of

the moment; and to become more aware of what is really important (Bass, 1990, p. 53).

These effects were achieved through the following types of transformational leadership behaviors: behavior role modeling; sharing transcendent goals that are significant to the leader; encouraging problem solving and learning from mistakes; and appealing to the needs of followers (Bass, 1996; Howell and Frost, 1989). As Bass stated:

> Transformational leaders attempt and succeed in raising colleagues, subordinates, followers, clients, or constituencies to a greater awareness about the issues of consequence. This heightening of awareness requires a leader with vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what he sees is right or good, not what is popular or is acceptable according to the established wisdom of the time (Bass, 1985, p. 17).

The concept of transformational leadership has traditionally been viewed as more likely to appear in religious or political movements, but more recently it has been used to understand leaders in a variety of situations. The transformational leader was usually seen as having a tendency to engender intense feelings from his or her subordinates, who often wanted to identify with him or her and trusted in the leader's ability to overcome obstacles. According to Yukl (1989) this kind of leadership could be viewed "as both a micro-level influence process between individuals and as a macro-level process of mobilizing power to change social systems and reform institutions" (p. 271).

Bass contended that many transformational leaders were seen as inspiring followers to be enthusiastic about assignments, inspiring loyalty to the organization, commanding respect from followers, and having a sense of mission (Bass, 1990).

Characteristics of transformational leaders.

One trait used to describe transformational leaders has been charisma. According to the literature, someone with charisma would appear confident, dominant, and to have a sense of purpose. Subordinates would tend to be drawn to the leader himself and the leader may be seen as being a model for the employees to follow. These leaders sometimes had followers that formed a strong commitment to the leader, and who may act with uncritical and unquestioning obedience. If successful, a leader with charisma could bring about radical changes in an organization. These leaders were viewed as being generous, honest, concerned for others, and having an idealistic vision of the future. They also tended to have a strong conviction as to the moral rightness of their beliefs (Bass, 1990).

Transformational leaders were often viewed in the literature as being inspirational leaders. With this concept, the followers were seen as being drawn to the goals and purposes of the leader, but not necessarily to the leader himself. The employees may not have necessarily viewed the leader as a role model but they may have felt that the leader pointed out desirable goals and how to achieve them, making the employees feel more powerful in the process. Inspirational leaders were believed to set challenging objectives as standards, use symbols creatively to get ideas across, point out reasons followers would succeed, remain calm in crises, stress beating the competition, and envision an attractive, but attainable future (Bass, 1990).

Individualized consideration involved an intimate understanding of each subordinate's needs and capabilities. The employer offered each worker time for individualized coaching or mentoring while working towards a common goal. This enabled the supervisor to increase his or her employees' confidence levels and increase their responsibility regarding personal development, which often included maximizing their job performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Intellectual stimulation would occur when a leader fostered creativity, rethinking, and the use of innovative methods for problem solving. This leadership characteristic would contribute to the autonomy and empowerment of subordinates. The transformational leader could enable subordinates to become more effective problem-solvers through the use of their own unique perspectives and strategies (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

In the review of much of the literature regarding transformational leadership, empowerment of subordinates emerged as an important concept. This concept was also described as the sharing of power with subordinates. Empowerment would help the employee feel respected by his or her supervisor as they worked together to achieve common goals (Trofino, 2000). Kouzes & Posner (1987) stated that, "when you strengthen others, your level of influence with them is increased" (p. 165). In other words, subordinates were more likely to be committed to an employer who shared power with them. Some ways in which a supervisor could share power with others were: to assign important tasks, give subordinates autonomy when working on a project, provide recognition for contributions, and build a strong relationship with subordinates (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Kouzes & Posner's leadership practices.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified five behaviors or practices associated with transformational leadership. These practices were believed to enable transformational leaders to accomplish extraordinary things. Kouzes and Posner contended that these behaviors contributed to leaders reaching their full potential. The five practices were: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.

Challenging the process involved the concept of leadership being an active rather than passive process. The challenge involved in this practice could include reorganization, working on an innovative new product, or just generating a change from the status quo. A transformational leader would experiment and take risks while being aware of and accepting the possible consequences involved (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Inspiring a shared vision, involved the leader creating and inspiring subordinates to work toward a common mission or goal. The leader could be seen as "breathing life" into the hopes and dreams of the employees or organization. In order to do this, the leader had to have an intimate knowledge of the needs and values of his or her subordinates. The leader had to also have a great deal of enthusiasm about the vision or goal in order to inspire subordinates to support it (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Leaders who enabled others to act thought in terms of "us" or "we" rather than in terms of "me." In other words, he or she recognized that the process of making a project work was a team effort and that he or she did not achieve success alone. They engendered a sense of teamwork and empowerment among subordinates, which inspired them to produce better results (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Modeling the way involved a leader creating a standard of excellence and then setting an example of how to meet that standard. In other words, the leader would direct the course of action involved in a project and act as a role model. In this way the leader could demonstrate to employees that he or she actually lived in a way that would work towards fulfilling his or her values and goals (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Finally, a leader who encouraged the heart worked to provide positive rewards to his or her employees in the form of offering encouragement, giving monetary bonuses, and recognizing contributions employees make. This leader would make a point of celebrating accomplishments made by individual employees, groups, or the entire organization. The leader would make sure that all the employees involved shared in the accomplishment, rather than taking the credit for himself (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

In order to measure these five practices, Kouzes and Posner (1987) developed the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). It is used to identify characteristics of transformational leadership in supervisors. The inventory contains six questions to measure each of the five behaviors or practices described above. It helps leaders to assess their leadership skills in order to supervise more effectively. It also has a component by which subordinates can evaluate their supervisor regarding his or her leadership skills in the five practice areas. It can be used to discover if there are any discrepancies between the leader and subordinates' perception of how effective the supervisor's style or behavior may be (Kouzes & Posner).

From this conceptual and empirical framework, Kouzes and Posner (1987) developed the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), which can identify the perceptions of both a manager and his or her subordinates regarding the manager's leadership practices. It can be used to differentiate between high and low-performing managers. Kouzes and Posner (1997) contend that the more frequently a manager demonstrates the behaviors included in the LPI, the more likely it is that he or she will be seen as an effective leader.

In summary, leadership can have a profound effect on the effectiveness and productivity of an organization. There have been a number of theories regarding leadership in the last century. The trait theory examined characteristics believed to be possessed by "natural born leaders." The behavioral theories focused on which behaviors a leader used to influence his or her subordinates. The situational, or contingency theories added the component of situational factors to the concept of leader behaviors. Transactional leadership involved a contract between employees and supervisors whereby the subordinate worked towards goals in exchange for rewards from the leader or employer. Finally, transformational leadership has been introduced as a more dynamic form of leadership by which a leader would inspire his or her subordinates toward common goals through characteristics such as charisma. Next, this literature review explores the concept of organizational commitment, its three components, its antecedents, and its consequences.

Organizational Commitment

Introduction to Organizational Commitment

It is important for many health clubs to be aware of its employees' organizational commitment and to develop ways to maintain it, in order to thrive and be successful. Ketchand and Strawser (2001) stated that organizational commitment "represents the attachments that individuals form to their employing organizations" and would influence employee decisions such as turnover intentions and actual employee turnover. Mattheiu and Zajac (2001) speculated that organizational commitment could be considered a bond or link between an employee and the organization. Corser (1998) made a distinction between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, stating the latter was a broader concept and that "it is a more complex set of loyalty that an individual may feel to the entirety of their employing organization, not simply an attachment to the specific job they hold." In discussing park and recreation agency employees, Howat and London described individuals with high organizational commitment as those who "are not likely to leave the agency if offered as good a job elsewhere and who plan to stay with the agency indefinitely" (London & Howat, 1979, p. 197). Haggerty and Denomme (1991) noted that increased commitment resulted in larger financial benefits, and "organizations with a large member base are often perceived to be effective and can exert considerable influence over their environment" (p. 58).

Zangaro (2001) stated that effective communication "is an essential component in achieving organizational commitment" and that this communication must be bidirectional. This means that as the employee would understand the goals and values of the organization, the organization must also be aware of the values, goals, and needs of the employee. He also stated that an employee who was committed to an organization would have "increased likelihood of retention, consistent attendance, and increased productivity" (Zangaro, 2001, p. 19).

There are many differences in theories of organizational commitment, which make it difficult to measure and identify organizational effectiveness. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that "commitment as a psychological state, had at least three components reflecting (a) a desire (affective commitment), (b) a need (continuance commitment), and (c) an obligation (normative commitment)" to maintain membership in an organization (p. 64). These authors indicated that although these components have traditionally been viewed as mutually exclusive, it would actually be "more reasonable to expect that an employee can experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 65). These three components combined, can be compared to Becker's (1992) "bases of commitment", defined as the "motives engendering attachment" (p. 232). Shouksmith (1994) conducted a study to isolate variables of commitment of employees within an organization. He concluded in his study that "organizational commitment of all three forms is strongly related to the opportunity the work organization provides for employees to feel motivated towards growth and to achieve some self-actualization."

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment has been described by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the desire to be involved in a particular organization. It involved an individual's long-term feelings toward his or her work. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982) focused on four categories that made up affective commitment: (a) personal characteristics, (b) structural characteristics, (c) job-related characteristic, and (d) work experience. Although these factors might contribute, Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that the desire to maintain membership in an organization was due mostly to work experiences, stating:

Presumably, employees want to remain in organizations that provide them with positive experiences because they value these experiences and expect them to continue. Moreover, they are likely to exert effort, and contribute to organizational effectiveness, as a means of maintaining equity in their relationship with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 75).

According to Ketchand and Stawser (2001, p. 2), affective communication involved an individual's emotional attachment formed due to the employee's identification with the organization's goals and the employee's willingness to assist in the attainment of these goals. Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that "employees with strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to" which was influenced by the individual's emotional attachment to, involvement with, and identification with the organization (p. 76).

More importantly to this study, Wong, Hui, Wong, and Law (2001) indicated that job satisfaction and employee turnover were much more strongly influenced by organizational commitment among Chinese workers than by that of employees in the West. It was speculated that this was so because of the importance of relationships in Chinese culture. These authors also believed that if the traditional Chinese values of loyalty, relationships, and reciprocity continue to be maintained in Chinese culture, then "employees' emotional attachment and sense of belonging to an organization will have positive and strong effects on their contributions to the organization" (p. 329). Based on the findings of their study, the authors indicated that Chinese organizations should strive to develop and maintain strong positive long-term relationships with their employees to foster organizational commitment, which will help to cultivate long-term positive attitudes and behaviors. They suggested that this will help the employee's perceive their job situations as satisfactory and decrease the chances of employees leaving the organization. The authors further recommended that Chinese organizations "provide better training to supervisors about organizational culture and the importance of treating their subordinates fairly to cultivate employees' organizational commitment" (p. 335).

Similarly, Cuskelly concluded in his 1995 study that organizations with more positive and open approaches towards employees appeared to be more likely to foster strong organizational commitment among workers. He recommended that organizations develop an environment that is "welcoming and makes members feel a part of the organization" in order to positively affect the retention rate of employees (p. 267).

Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Casier (2000) stated that employees who had strong affective commitment to an organization would "contribute more to the organizational goals and are less likely to leave the organization." (p. 416). They found that among nurses, trust in management strongly affected their belief in organizational goals and ultimately, their desire to remain in the organization. Based on these findings they suggested that organizations should foster an environment that enhances organizational trust and commitment in order to increase organizational effectiveness.

Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) found affective commitment to be the most important to employee retention. They suggested that it may be more prudent for "companies to foster affective commitment in their employees than to develop continuance commitment. Employees who intrinsically value their association with the organization are more likely not only to remain with the company but to work toward its success." (p. 155). Akhtar and Tan suggested that organizations enhance affective communication by "improving welfare measures, developing trust between superiors and subordinates, creating conditions for collegial relations in the work place, and other activities that promote feelings of belongingness in the organization" (Akhtar & Tan, 1994, p. 1388).

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment was described by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the "perceived costs associated with leaving the organization" (p. 64). "Anything that increases the cost associated with leaving an organization has the potential to create continuance commitment" (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 77). Ketchand and Strawser (2001) defined continuance commitment as an individual's "desire to maintain their relationship with the organization because of the costs of leaving it and not because of an emotional attachment" (p. 2). Employees with organizational commitment, according to the literature remained, with an organization because they feel that they needed to, not because they wanted to. Wahn (1998) explained "this need to remain with the organization may be due to the absence of alternatives and/or to the sunk costs associated with reaching one's current position in the organization" (p. 258). Thus, these employees exchanged their contributions to the organization for the fringe benefits or from fear of losing them.

One of the perceived "costs" an employee may see as a reason to maintain his or her current position is a lack of other viable job opportunities. Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that some of the perceived potential costs of leaving an organization could include "the threat of losing attractive benefits, of giving up seniority-based privileges, or of having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships" (p. 71). For example, an employee may fear that, by leaving his/her position at an organization, they will lose opportunities for advancement or increased salary, thus exhibiting continuance commitment.

Some of the benefits of remaining with an organization included health insurance, flexible or special work hours for working mothers, pension, or accrued vacation time. Akhtar and Tan (1994) indicated that continuance commitment could be increased through "the appropriate use of rewards, job redesign, goal setting, career planning, and self-development programs which can help employees to achieve both personal and organizational goals" (Akhtar & Tan, 1994, p. 1388). Shouksmith (1994) suggested that one of the ways to enhance the probability of continuance commitment would be to increase the possibility for promotion within the organization.

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment was described by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the obligation to remain in a particular organization. An employee who remained with an organization because of normative commitment did so because he or she felt they should, not because they wanted or needed to. A normative commitment to an organization may stem from an individual's feeling of a moral commitment due to the costs the company faced in order to train the employee or due to certain social norms. For example, Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) stated that a person was less likely to leave an organization if his or her values indicated that it is inappropriate to do so. Meyer and Allen agreed, stating:

> The socialization experiences that lead to this felt obligation may begin with observation of role models and/or with the contingent use of rewards and punishment... At a more macro level, cultures may do the same thing to their

members by emphasizing the importance of the collective rather than the individual (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 77).

Akhtar and Tan (1994) suggested that normative commitment could be promoted through "proper selection of employees, job previews, induction training, and organizational socialization" (Akhtar & Tan, 1994, p. 1388). This could help to match organizational and employee expectations as well as facilitate the entry of new workers. To help with employee retention it was important to maintain open lines of communication to resolve any conflicts or grievances that arose due to organizational norms and individual expectations changing over time.

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a set of three scales to measure their three-component model of organizational commitment. They named them the Affective, Normative, and Continuance Commitment Scales. Definitions of each of those three components were used to develop a pool of items for the scales. This scale can provide companies with an idea of how committed employees are to the organization and what components of organizational commitment may need more work.

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Ketchand and Strawser (2001) indicated that there were two main antecedents of organizational commitment, personal and situational. Personal factors were those characteristics that a person possessed prior to entering an organization. Situational factors were those that the employee encountered upon entering the organization such as job quality, degree of participative leadership, and coworker commitment. These authors concluded that situational factors had more of an influence of an employee's commitment to the organization than personal factors.

Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that each separate type of commitment had it's own set of antecedents. First, they discussed the antecedents for affective commitment. One, personal characteristics, consisted of demographic information such as tenure, age, sex, and education. It also included characteristics such as the personal need for achievement, autonomy, and personal work ethic. Steers (1977) described the concept of personal characteristics as "those variables which define the individual" (p. 47).

Another antecedent of affective communication was a person's work experience within the organization. This could include an employee's comfort level within the organization, an employee's belief that pre-hiring promises have been kept, and the belief of the individual that the organization treats employees equally (Meyer and Allen, 1991, pp. 69-71). Steers (1977) indicated that work experiences could be viewed "as a major socializing force and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization" (p. 48). Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) identified job characteristics such as "task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety, and supervisory feedback" as antecedents of affective commitment (p. 371).

For the continuance commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that, "anything that increases perceived costs can be considered an antecedent" (p. 71). Testing the importance of these types of antecedents, however, could be difficult because each individual views his or her costs and benefits of leaving very differently. Contrary to these authors, Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) suggested that age and tenure function as potential antecedents to continuance commitment rather than affective. They also included career satisfaction and intent to leave. Tenure for example, could indicate such benefits as skills unique to that organization, relationships with coworkers, and retirement investments that could be considered non-transferable if the employee left the organization.

Antecedents to normative commitment, according to Allen and Meyer (1991), mostly involved the moral or social pressures a person has encountered through family or cultural interactions prior to entry into the organization. This could also be expanded to include social pressures found within the organization following an individual entering the organization. Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) indicated that the dependability of the organization and the amount of participatory management could be "expected to instill a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate to the organization" (Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda, 1994, p. 371).

Organizational dependability was defined as, "the extent to which employees feel the organization can be counted on to look after their interests" (Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda, 1994, p. 371). Participatory management was "the extent to which employees feel that they can influence decisions regarding the work environment and other issues of concern to them" (Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda, 1994, p. 371).

Consequences of Organizational Commitment

The possible consequences of employees' organizational commitment should be a topic of great importance to leaders within organizations. Zajac and Mathieu (1990) concluded that "society as a whole tends to benefit from employees' organizational commitment in terms of lower rates of job movement and perhaps higher national productivity or work quality or both" (p. 171). They stated that organizational commitment "has been used to predict employees' absenteeism, performance, turnover, and other behaviors" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171). One of the consequences that could result from a lack of organizational commitment was an increase in employee turnover rates and turnover intentions. Cohen (1991) indicated that employees' commitment or attachment to an organization could serve as a strong predictor of employee turnover rates. Steers (1977) indicated that organizational commitment was "associated with increases in an employee's desire and intent to remain with an organization" and that it was found to be significantly related to a decrease in employee turnover (p. 54).

Another consequence of organizational commitment is a decrease in employee absenteeism. Cohen (1990) found that organizational commitment had a positive relationship with a decrease in employee absenteeism, however, more so in the mid or later career stages. In a study conducted by Steers (1977) organizational commitment was found to be strongly related to attendance of the employees included in the sample. He suggested that employees who were highly committed to an organization "should be more likely to have a strong desire to come to work and contribute toward goal attainment" (p. 48).

The third consequence of organizational commitment is improved work performance or productivity. Steers (1977) offered the assumption that "committed employees would expend greater effort on the job" (p. 48). He also stated that in much of the literature surrounding organizational commitment it has been commonly held that a highly committed person would be expected to exert high levels of effort. Zajac and

Mathieu (1990) indicated that Katz and Kahn provided evidence suggesting that employees who are committed would be more likely to engage in more creative and innovative behaviors which would enhance their performance and keep the organization competitive. Cohen (1991) theorized that in the mid and later stages of his or her career, an individual would have a higher degree of commitment, which would have a positive effect on his or her performance.

In conclusion, organizational commitment can have an important effect on the success of an organization. There were three main components of organizational commitment discussed in this section. Affective commitment involved a person's emotional attachment to an organization. Continuance commitment occurred when an individual felt it was more beneficial to remain with an organization than to leave it. Normative commitment referred to the feeling an employee had of being obligated through moral or social norms to remain with an organization. Intrinsic personal factors as well as situational factors could function as antecedents to a person's organizational commitment. Consequences of organizational commitment were found to include increased productivity, decreased turnover, and decreased absenteeism. Next, job satisfaction, the theories surrounding it, its antecedents, and its consequences will be discussed.

Job Satisfaction

Introduction to Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an integral part of an organization's success. It was described in the literature as the feelings that individuals maintained about their jobs (McNeese-Smith, 1996). Parson's defined it as "the extent to which employees like their work" (Parsons, 1998, p. 18). Kreitner and Kinicki (1989) defined it as "an affective or emotional response toward various facets of one's job" which involved both the positive and negative feelings of the employee to the job (p. 52). According to this definition someone could be satisfied with one or more aspect of his or her job, but dissatisfied with others. Posner and Kouzes (1987) contended that because work was often where individuals sought meaning and identity, job satisfaction was also related to how satisfied someone would be with his or her life.

Early Studies

Pay.

In the United States, in the first two decades of the twentieth century, it was believed that workers were only interested in earning money, so they would work hard and for long hours in order to get it. This concept lead to the utilization of incentive pay plans with the idea of paying for productivity so that employees could be induced to work harder, longer, and more efficiently (Siegel & Lane, 1982). Timmreck (2001) indicates that using rewards or money as motivation creates a trap and may fail. The theory behind this is that giving money to workers as a reward leads to a snowball effect in which the employee begins to expect more and higher bonuses for each project completed. When the employee begins to expect extra money to come in and it doesn't, job dissatisfaction begins to set in.

Hawthorne studies.

In the late 1920's the Hawthorne studies emerged. These studies were conducted at the Hawthorne electric plant in Chicago, Illinois in order to investigate relationships between fatigue and industrial efficiency. One of these studies investigated the use of rest periods during the workday and a reduction in work hours during the week. The employees in the study were separated from the general work population and had only one supervisor. The researchers found that despite taking short breaks out of their production time, less supervision, and shortened weekly hours, the employees actually increased their production. This indicated that reducing employee fatigue as well as creating a more permissive and democratic atmosphere had a significant positive effect on productivity (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Based on these findings, researchers began exploring factors such as interpersonal relationships and job attitudes, which had previously been largely ignored. Studies were developed that delved into the concepts of human relations involving massive interviewing programs involving thousands of electrical plant employees to investigate employee attitudes, supervision, and morale. These studies revealed the previously unsuspected importance of social groups among employees, which had a large impact on their behavior and productivity (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Discrepancy theory.

New theories concerning job satisfaction began to emerge in the 1960's. The first was called the Discrepancy Theory. This theory involved the belief that employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs was related to their perceived discrepancy between what they wanted and what they had received from the organization. Job satisfaction would also be affected by how important an individual's wants were to him or her. For example, extra vacation time may be more important to a particular employee than the opportunity for gaining additional income through overtime work (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Facet satisfaction.

In the next decade, the Model of Facet Satisfaction came into existence. This theory was similar to the discrepancy theory in that it was believed that employees would be satisfied with one element, or facet, of their jobs if they received what they felt they deserved for that element. The difference is that in this model, a job was broken down into different components, each of which were then rated for the worker's satisfaction, then the separate scores would be combined to obtain an overall job satisfaction score. According to this theory, even if an employee received more than he or she felt was deserved for a particular facet, then he or she would be dissatisfied with that facet of the job due to feelings of guilt (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Opponent-Process theory.

In 1978, the opponent-process theory arose which was significantly different than the previous models. This theory viewed job satisfaction as an emotional state and involved the contention that emotional equilibrium was the most beneficial. The idea behind this theory was that if a person experienced an extreme emotional state such as those experienced with job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, it would trigger the opposite, or opponent emotion to be activated as well. So even if an employee was initially very happy with a positive reward, later he or she would feel that the amount or level of the reward was not enough and become unhappy for a while, until a more neutral emotional state was regained. Thus, an employee's level of job satisfaction would vary significantly over time (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

Some studies have indicated the importance of two factors as determinants of job satisfaction. These included dispositional factors (personal characteristics) and work motivation (Gerhart, 1987) (Pool, 1997). Some examples of individual characteristics included: ability, experience, organization, knowledge, and work history (Pool, 1997). Another characteristic involved was the strength of the employee's work ethic. For example, it was believed that someone with a strong work ethic would report greater job satisfaction that someone with a weaker work ethic.

Arvey, Abraham, Bouchard, and Segal (1989) separated personal factors effecting job satisfaction into two categories, positive and negative affect. Positive affect involved how much capacity a person had to experience enthusiasm about his or her job, and to experience feelings of trust and gratification towards the organization. Negative affect on the other hand, involved how much a person tended to be worried, suspicious, fearful, or dissatisfied in regards to an organization or employer (Arvey, et.al, 1989).

The study of personal traits has had little attention in research regarding its impact on job satisfaction. However, some researchers argued that it plays a "secondary role", and that research on situational, or motivational, factors should be the primary focus (Pool, 1997). For example, Gerhart conducted a study in 1987 to assess the idea that traits were the most important determinants of job satisfaction. However, he found that "pay, status, and job complexity added explanatory power to an equation predicting job satisfaction", indicating that these situational factors had more impact on job satisfaction that personal traits (Gerhart, 1987, p. 370).

Work motivation measured two aspects of job performance: (a) the degree to which performance is successful, and (b) a set of valued rewards as a result of successful performance (Pool, 1997). Salary, status, and job complexity were some examples of motivational factors that were considered strong predictors of job satisfaction (Gerhart, 1987). A positive relationship between these motivational factors and levels of job satisfaction were demonstrated in several studies conducted by researchers (McNeese-Smith, 1996; Gerhart, 1987; Pool, 1997).

Siegel and Lane (1982) explored three possible determinants of job satisfaction: intrinsic factors of the work itself, pay, and supervision. Some intrinsic factors related to job satisfaction were variety, difficulty, amount of work, amount of responsibility required of the employee, autonomy, control over work methods, complexity, and creativity, all of which had a common factor involving the level of mental challenge involved. It was found to be important, however, for an organization to identify the appropriate amount of challenge to lead to satisfaction among its employees. It was believed that unchallenging jobs were likely to generate boredom and uninvolvement. Conversely, a job that made personal demands the employee could not meet, or that demanded more intellectual or physical ability than the employee could manage, would generate frustration, leading to job dissatisfaction (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Siegel and Lane (1982) contended that although pay has been identified through research as an important factor in the determination of job satisfaction, it has been neglected in most of the literature throughout most of the twentieth century, however it has inspired renewed interest in recent years. These two authors indicated that although pay could be used to satisfy basic needs such as food, shelter, and clothing, it could also be used as a symbol of status, or as a means for individuals to explore their leisure interests to a greater degree, such as being able to take vacations or purchase expensive recreational equipment (boats, skis, etc.) (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

The relationship between employees and their supervisors could also be an important determinant of job satisfaction. Siegel and Lane (1982) stated that employees "prefer to work with considerate supervisors who are supportive, warm, and employee-centered rather than hostile, apathetic, and job-centered" (p. 279). One factor of the supervisor-employee relationship involved the extent to which the supervisor helped the employee satisfy his or her values or perceived needs. Another factor involved how closely the attitudes and values of the supervisor matched those of the employee. The authors contended that the best supervisor-employee relationships occurred when both of these factors were positive (Siegel & Lane, 1982).

Kreitner and Kinicki (1989) contended that there were four major factors that contributed to a person's job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The first, need fulfillment, involved the extent to which individuals felt their jobs allowed them to fulfill their needs. The second factor involved the discrepancies between what an individual expected to receive and what he or she actually received. In contrast to the contentions of models discussed earlier, employees in this case would be satisfied rather than dissatisfied if what he or she received is above and beyond expectations. The idea behind the third component, value attainment, was that job satisfaction was related to how much a worker perceived that his or her job allowed for the fulfillment of his or her values. The fourth factor effecting job satisfaction was equity. This involved how fair the employee perceived the organization to be in dealing with workers (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989).

Consequences of Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction

The consequences of job satisfaction versus dissatisfaction is a concept that should be very important to supervisors since there appears to be a link between employees' satisfaction and job performance and therefore, productivity and profit. One of the possible consequences of job dissatisfaction is absenteeism. Kreitner and Kinicki (1989) suggested that there was "a strong negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism," therefore as satisfaction decreased, absenteeism would increase (p. 168). Farr and Cheloha (1980) also found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and absence behaviors. Another important consequence of dissatisfaction was an increase in employee turnover rate, which could be very costly as well as disruptive to the organizational continuity (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989). Job performance, as previously mentioned, can also be affected by job satisfaction. However, according to Kreitner and Kinicki (1989), there was controversy over whether satisfaction lead to improved performance or if high performance lead to increased satisfaction.

Several attempts have been made to develop a scale that will accurately measure job satisfaction. For example the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin in 1969 uses five facets to measure satisfaction: work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) covers twenty facets with five items per facet. It has been considered more specific than other satisfaction scales. The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) studies the effects of different characteristics of a job on an employee and covers several areas of job satisfaction such as growth, pay, security, social, and supervision. The Job in General Scale (JIG) assesses overall job satisfaction rather than specific facets (Barling & Kelloway, 1997).

According to Spector (1985) these scales did not reflect human services, which meant it was impossible to compare a given human services company to other human services companies in general. He found in his review of the literature that these scales were found to indicate lower satisfaction in their samples from human services organizations than with the norms of the instruments. He developed a new job satisfaction instrument called the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to fill the need for an instrument for human services. The scale measured nine aspects of job satisfaction: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication.

In summary, job satisfaction, or lack thereof, can have an effect on the success of an organization in the form of absenteeism, turnover rate, and work performance. In the beginning of the last century, it was believed that pay was the primary component leading to a worker's satisfaction with his or her job. Later, it was discovered that interpersonal relationships could have an effect on satisfaction as well. More recently, situational factors have been added to the equation leading to job satisfaction. Antecedents to job satisfaction included personal as well as situational factors. Consequences of job dissatisfaction included increased absenteeism, increased turnover, and decreased productivity. Next, this review will explore the relationships between leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

The Relationships Between Leadership, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

The review of literature revealed the importance of examining the relationships that exist between the three variables that have been discussed so far: leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. As has already been discussed, organizational commitment and job satisfaction can have an impact on the effectiveness of an organization including turnover rates, job performance, and productivity. This section will demonstrate that a leader's style or behavior can also have an impact on these components of effectiveness through its effect on employees' job satisfaction or organizational commitment.

Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Beaulieu, et al. (1997) indicated that employees who had supervisors that allowed access to job-related empowerment are more committed their organization. According to the literature review conducted by these authors, Wilson (1993) concluded in his study "empowered registered nurses in an acute care institution were more committed to their organization than RNs with limited access to opportunity and empowerment" (p. 32). These authors also indicated that because of the link between empowerment and commitment, empowering strategies could help executives in their endeavors towards organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Thus, supervisors or administrators may be able to increase the commitment of subordinates by sharing control with them. The authors recommended that powerful leaders should work toward removing barriers impeding employees' access to opportunities for empowerment so that they can perform their work more successfully.

Nogradi (1981) found that managerial activities are strongly related to commitment, and that leadership style can actually moderate the degree of involvement and commitment expressed by staff members. In particular, he concluded that the participative style of leadership, characterized by open communication, more trust, and higher levels of teamwork, to be associated with a higher degree of organizational commitment. Yousef (2000) also indicated that employees who perceived their supervisors as using participative leadership behaviors were more likely to exhibit high levels of commitment to the organization. On the other hand, Nogradi (1981) found that managerial styles that stifle opportunities for employee contributions and opinions, such as the authoritative style, might lead employees to indifference and minimal performance. He also indicated that communication between supervisors and their subordinates appears to be the most influential process relating to organizational commitment. Friedrich (2001) found that the manner in which managers communicate with subordinates affects their attitude toward the organization, which in turn affects commitment. In fact, the relationship with immediate supervisors was found to have a greater impact that company policies and procedures, and determined both productivity levels and length of stay.

Kent and Chelladurai (2001) found that transformational leaders led to enhanced loyalty and commitment within an organization, particularly in affective and normative commitment. They found that charisma had a great impact on the feelings of emotional attachment of employees while both charisma and individualized consideration impacted normative commitment the most. However, they indicated that transformational leadership had a higher correlation with affective commitment than with normative commitment. McNeese-Smith (1995), in conducting a study to examine the effects of the five leadership behaviors, found that all five had a significant positive impact on employees' job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment. The behavior "inspiring a shared vision" had the highest correlation with these outcomes, while "encouraging the heart" had the lowest. A year later, she found the behavior "challenging the process" to be the strongest predictor of employee organizational commitment (McNeese-Smith, 1996).

Podsakoff, et al (1996) indicated that inspiring a shared vision, individualized consideration, and modeling the way each had a significant impact on trust and commitment of employees toward the organization and supervisors. Hubbard and Harrison (1997) found that employees "indicated stronger commitment to the organization when their supervisor exhibited behaviors reflective of initiating structure and individualized consideration" (p. 620). Agarwal, et al (1999) also concluded that consideration was significantly related to organizational commitment in both the United States and India, however they found in their study that initiating structure was not directly related to organizational commitment and that its effects were only indirect through reduction of role stress

Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Trott and Winsor (1999) suggested that employees "need to know that they are supported by administration" in order to experience increased job satisfaction. Friedrich (2001) cited several items related to leadership that positively effected job satisfaction: recognition of outstanding performance, effective communication within the organization, input to the decision-making process, and general satisfaction with management style. In contrast, Gilmore et al. actually found that job satisfaction was not affected by manipulations of leader behavior in their 1979 study. In addition, although Wallace and Weese (1995) found indications in the literature that high transformational leaders were believed to focus on higher ideals that contribute to high levels of job satisfaction, their research did not support this theory.

In a study by Medley and Larochelle (1995), it was found that head nurses with high transformational scores were more likely to have staff nurses with higher job satisfaction scores and a longer association with their staff nurses than transactional-type head nurse leaders. In his review of the literature, Yusof (1998) found several studies indicating that transformational leadership behaviors tend to lead to greater job satisfaction among employees of industrial and business organizations. He found this to be true within intercollegiate athletic settings as well. It was found that coaches who considered their athletic directors to be highly transformational were "more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts who evaluated their superiors as low in transformational leadership behaviors" (p. 174).

Hater and Bass (1988) also found a greater correlation between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction than they did with transactional leadership. Dunham-Taylor (2000), in a similar study found that as leaders were more transformational "they achieved better staff satisfaction and higher work group effectiveness" (p. 241). They found that empowerment, often considered a component of transformational leadership had a significant positive impact on job satisfaction. Similarly, Laschinger, et al. (2001), found that "job satisfaction was predicted directly by psychological empowerment" (p. 268). Finegan et al. (2001) found in their study that staff empowerment had "an impact on the degree of job strain experienced in the work setting and ultimately influences work satisfaction" (p. 64).

McNeese-Smith (1996) indicated that the leadership behavior most strongly correlated with job satisfaction to be "enabling others to act". Pool (1997) concluded that the leadership behavior of individualized consideration improved the chances of job satisfaction, while initiating structure decreased it. Kerr et al. (1974) indicated in their review of related literature that the findings of researchers indicated that leadership that was high in consideration for employees and in initiating structure was positively related to maximal job satisfaction. In contrast to the transformational model, Podsakoff et al. (1996), found that leadership behaviors that communicated high performance expectations tended to contribute to decreased general job satisfaction. They also found within the transformational model that inspiring a shared vision had a significant positive impact on job satisfaction, but only when performing tasks that were more intrinsically satisfying as well. Modeling the way was also found to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Intellectual stimulation was found to have a positive relationship with satisfaction only in situations with high levels of group cohesiveness. In situations with low levels of group cohesiveness, this variable was found to increase levels of role conflict and cause frustration.

Shoemaker (1999) conducted a study to investigate the relationships between each of the five variables of Kouzes and Posner's leadership model. Challenging the process was positively correlated with job satisfaction among employees and supervisors. Employees also indicated greater job satisfaction when leaders inspired a shared vision, which allowed them to see the value of their own work and made them feel secure in discussing plans for the future. Enabling others to act gave employees a sense of empowerment leading to increased job satisfaction. Modeling the way positively impacted job satisfaction by making employees feel as if the supervisor valued and supported their success. Encouraging the heart also contributed to satisfaction by offering traditional methods of rewards and encouragement. Thus, she found that all five variables had a positive impact on job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Wong et al. (2001) found that organizational commitment was a predictor of job satisfaction in their Chinese samples. In contrast, Testa (2001) found that increased job satisfaction would act as a stimulant for organizational commitment. Harrison and Hubbard (1997) conducted a study to compare the organizational commitment of U.S. workers to Mexican workers. They found that both U.S. and Mexican workers felt greater commitment to their organization when experiencing greater job satisfaction. Porter, et al (1974) actually viewed job satisfaction as one specific component of organizational commitment.

Begley and Czajka (1993) found a moderating effect of commitment on job satisfaction in which only employees with low commitment had job displeasure increased by stress. Stress did not decrease job satisfaction in those with high levels of commitment. Therefore, organizational commitment is seen as a precursor to changes in job satisfaction. Lum et al (1998) also viewed job satisfaction to be a result rather than a cause of organizational commitment. Bateman and Strasser (1984) agreed, stating "there is evidence that overall satisfaction is not a cause of commitment but rather a result of it" (p. 107).

Tett and Meyer (1993) discussed two opposing views of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in their review of the literature. One view holds that commitment to an organization develops from satisfaction; so satisfied workers become committed to the organization, which is seen as more stable than satisfaction as it takes longer to develop. The second view suggest that commitment actually develops early on in employment, possibly even prior to employment, and that commitment engenders positive attitudes about a job, possibly through a rationalization process, leading to job satisfaction. They also present a third view, which indicates that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are distinct constructs that contribute uniquely to turnover or retention with no causality between them. These authors concluded in their study that this third view was the most likely. Glisson and Durick (1988) have also indicated that research has failed to support a causal relationship between these two constructs.

Summary

In conclusion, this chapter explored several theories relating to leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It also examined the relationships between these three variables. First the chapter discussed early theories of leadership such as the trait theory in which it was believed that effective leaders possessed certain personal traits that others did not have. The behavioral theories contended that leaders utilized certain behaviors that dictated their effectiveness. Other theorists believed leadership was situational, meaning that the behavioral theories did not take into consideration of the situation having an effect on behaviors and outcomes. Transactional leaders were believed to essentially make a contract with subordinates in which they would both benefit. Leaders who were transformational went beyond the simple transaction and inspired subordinates to transcend their self-interest. Transformational leaders were believed to encourage the heart, challenge the heart, inspire a shared vision, model the way, and enable others to act.

Organizational commitment refers to attachments workers make to their place of employment. This variable was broken into three components: Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to an emotional attachment formed regarding the organization. Continuance commitment involves the feeling that the employee "needs" to stay with the organization because of sunk costs or lack of other opportunities. Normative commitment occurs when an employee stays with a company because of a feeling that he or she "should" because of moral reasons or a feeling of peer pressure.

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's feelings about a job, particularly involving whether or not he or she likes the job. Originally, researchers believed the only cause for satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a job was pay. This was found to be too simplistic and to possibly lead to a snowball effect. Other factors emerged such as employee fatigue, work conditions, and interpersonal relationships. Next, a discrepancy theory arose in which it was believed that job satisfaction relied on the discrepancies felt to lie between what an employee wanted from a company and what he or she was actually given. The facets theory arose from the belief that job satisfaction stemmed from an employees satisfaction with each of a set of facets within a job. The opponent-process theory contended that a person's overall job satisfaction varied over time as it was based on emotional equilibrium which would lead to a neutral feeling about the job.

Finally, the chapter looked at the relationships among leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Nearly all of the authors reviewed indicated a positive relationship between the type of leadership and employees' organizational commitment, particularly with transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was also found to have a positive effect on employee satisfaction in the majority of the literature. Researchers had conflicting views regarding organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Some researchers found that employees having high organizational commitment lead to greater job satisfaction, while others concluded that high job satisfaction lead to greater commitment. Still others found the two to be distinct constructs with no causal relationship between them.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the sample, instrumentation, research design, and procedures used to examine the relationships between different leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in Taiwanese health clubs. The first section of this chapter provides a description of the selection of subjects. The second section introduces the three instruments used in this study. The third section describes the procedures used to distribute questionnaires and collect data. The final section provides a description of the research design and data analysis.

Selection of Subjects

The target population in this study was 94 health clubs with a total of 129 branches. This information was taken from Chiang's investigation regarding the categorization of health and fitness facilities in Taiwan in 2000.

According to Kelloway (1998) it is generally accepted that a sample of at least 200 completed responses is required to meet the statistical requirements of structural equation modeling for data analysis. He also indicated that some researchers have suggested that a ratio of sample size to estimated parameters should be at least somewhere between 5:1 and 10:1. This helps ensure accuracy of estimates and to ensure proper representation of the target population. As this study had multiple observed variables to define the latent variables, a large sample size was needed. In this study, since there were 13 observed variables, the sample size should be at least somewhere between 65 and 130. For this study, 469 valid questionnaires were obtained, which is much larger than the suggested 130 or 200, indicating an acceptable sample size.

In this study, 30 health clubs branches between 129 were randomly selected. A total of 725 questionnaires were distributed to the employees within the 30 health club branches selected. Of the 725 questionnaires, 537 questionnaires were returned for a return rate of 74.06%. There were 68 questionnaires out of 537 that were invalid because of missing demographic data or incomplete questions, leaving 469 valid questionnaires.

Instrumentation

This study used the Leadership Practices Scale (LPS), the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), as well as a demographic survey:

Demographic Survey

A demographic survey developed by the researcher, with input from the researcher's dissertation committee, was used in this study. This survey was used to collect personal data about each employee including: gender, educational background, marital status, college major studied (for those with education beyond junior college level), and length of time employed by current immediate supervisor.

Leadership Practices Scale (LPS)

The Leadership Practices Scale, modified from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), which was developed in 1988 by Posner and Kouzes, measured the types of leadership behaviors exhibited by administrators in this study. The original questionnaire was designed to measure an administrator's use of the five leadership behaviors identified in this study, as perceived by the employees they supervise. The LPI is based on employees' perceptions of the administrator's use of the five leadership practices: Challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.

The LPI consists of 30 items, 6 for each leadership behavior. Each item is scored using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. The respondents' choices associated with these scales are: 1 = "Rarely;" 2 = "Once in a while;" 3 = "Sometimes;" 4 = "Fairly often;" and 5 = "Very frequently" (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). The questionnaire was modified by the researcher for this study and translated from English to Chinese. It was renamed the Leadership Practices Scale (LPS). Table 3.1 indicates the items related to each subscale.

Table 3.1
Items of Each Subscale of Leadership Practices

Subscale	Items
Challenging the process	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26
Inspiring a shared vision	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27
Enabling others to act	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28
Modeling the way	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29
Encouraging the heart	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)

In 1990 Meyer and Allen (1997) developed the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, then developed the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales to measure each component. The instrument was designed to measure the degree to which subjects feel each type of commitment to the employing organization. Their three-component instrument originally contained a total of 24 items, however after revising, it now contains 18 questions.

The questionnaire was modified by the researcher for this study and translated from English to Chinese. It was renamed the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and includes items pertaining to the subjects' perceptions regarding their loyalty toward the organization, their willingness to exert a great deal of effort to achieve organizational goals, and their acceptance of the organization's values. There were 6 items for each of the three subscales: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Each item represents a statement to which the subject responds on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7. The respondents choices associated with these scales are: 1 = "Strongly disagree;" 2 = "Moderately disagree;" 3 = "Slightly disagree;" 4 = "Neither disagree nor agree;" 5 = "Slightly agree;" 6 = "Moderately agree;" and 7 = "Strongly agree."

The wording of four of the statements was reversed in an attempt to make sure respondents actually read each question fully: three from affective commitment and one from normative commitment. Table 3.2 indicates the items related to each subscale.

Table 3.2
Items of Each Subscale of Organizational Commitment

Subscale	Items
Affective commitment	1, 4, 7r, 10r, 13, 16r
Continuance commitment	2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17
Normative commitment	3r, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18

Note. Items followed by "r" should be reverse-scored

Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)

Spector developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in 1985 in order to measure employees' job satisfaction. The scale originally consisted of 36 items with nine subscales: Pay, promotion, supervisor, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication, Each of the nine subscales contain four items, and a total satisfaction score can be computed by combining all of the items. The higher the overall score, the greater the indication of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The survey was developed for human service, public, and nonprofit sector organization organizations, but may be applicable to others as well (Spector, 1985).

The researcher modified the survey, renaming it the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS). The new version contains 20 items and each of the items is a statement that is either favorable or unfavorable about an aspect of the job. Each item represents a statement to which the subject responds on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7. The respondents choices associated with these scales are: 1 = "Strongly disagree;" 2 =

"Moderately disagree;" 3 = "Slightly disagree;" 4 = "Neither disagree nor agree;" 5 = "Slightly agree;" 6 = "Moderately agree;" and 7 = "Strongly agree."

The wording of nineteen of the statements was reversed in an attempt to reduce response set bias. Respondents were asked to circle one of seven numbers that corresponds to their agreement or disagreement regarding each item. Table 3.3 indicates the items related to each subscale.

Table 3.3
Items of Each Subscale of Job Satisfaction

Subscale	Items
Pay	1, 6r, 11r, 16
Promotion	2r, 7, 12, 17
Supervisor	3, 8r, 13r, 18
Coworkers	4, 9r, 14, 19r
Nature of work	5r, 10, 15, 20

Note. Items followed by "r" should be reverse-scored

Procedures

After reviewing the literature, the researcher utilized the most recent and appropriate theories related to each latent variable. Then a questionnaire developed from each of the theories was modified to best represent the data needed for this study. The researcher then translated the surveys from English to Chinese with assistance from two Taiwanese colleagues with English degrees to ensure proper flow and meaning.

The researcher used Chiang's (2000) list of 94 Taiwanese health clubs with a total of 129 branches in order to randomly select 30 club branches. The researcher then made phone calls to administrators of each of the thirty branches inviting them to participate in the study after providing a brief description of the purpose of the study and method of data collection. Administrators from all thirty contacted health club branches agreed to participate and appointments were made for distribution after determining the number of employees at each branch.

The questionnaires were distributed on-site at each branch location by a local acquaintance of the researcher, who was residing outside of Taiwan at the time of distribution. Each branch was distributed a number of questionnaires corresponding to the number of employees reported to be on staff. Each employee was provided with a five-page packet including a cover letter, the three questionnaires, and a demographic survey. The cover letter provided assurance of confidentiality, a statement regarding the purpose of the study, and detailed instructions about completing the questionnaires. The distributor also provided a brief explanation of the survey as each was provided to the employees.

Each packet was then completed by those who chose to participate and returned to the point of distribution. After collection of the packets, they were packaged together and mailed to the researcher. Over a period of two months, a total of 725 questionnaires were distributed with 537 being returned, giving a response rate of 74.06%. Of these 537, 68 were invalid due to incomplete questions or missing demographic data, leaving 469 valid questionnaires.

Research Design and Data Analysis

The data received from the survey were analyzed using the Software Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSSPC+) 10.0 and LISREL 8.52. Frequencies and percentages were used to calculated demographic variables in order to understand the demographic characteristics of the sample. The researcher tested the fit between the proposed model and data collected by using structural equation modeling, which could be manipulated by LISREL 8.52. To test the hypotheses of this study, the researcher tested whether statistical analyses supported the measurement model first, followed by a focus on the structural model. The measurement models were used to specify latent variables as linear functions of the observed variables in the model. It allowed the researcher to assess the contribution of each indicator as well as to determine the validity coefficients of the constructs. The structural model was used to capture the causal influences of exogenous latent variables on endogenous latent variables and of endogenous latent variables upon one another.

LISREL 8.52 software was used to run the proposed model. For assessment of fit for the proposed model, this study took the suggestions of Bagozzi and Yi (1988), Bollen (1989), Browne and Cudeck (1993), Byrne (1998), Chou and Bentler (1995), Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993), and Hair et al. (1998), that the proposed model be evaluated from overall model fit as well as fit of internal structure.

Overall Fit Measures

1. Absolute fit measures

(1) Chi-square(χ^2) -- the value of chi-square should not be significant. That is $p \geqq 0.1$.

(2) Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) -- The values of GFI should be larger than 0.9.

(3) Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) -- SRMR values less than 0.05 indicate a good fit.

(4) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) -- RMSEA values less than 0.05 indicates good fit. RMSEA values ranging from 0.05 to 0.08 indicates fair fit. The values ranging from 0.08 to 0.10 are indicative of mediocre fit. The values larger than 0.10 are indicative of a poor fit.

(5) Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) -- the values of ECVI for the theoretical model less than that of independent model and saturated model are indicative of an acceptance of the model.

(6) Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) -- The values of AGFI should be larger than 0.9.

2. Incremental fit measures

(1) Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) -- The values of NNFI should be larger than 0.9.

(2) Normed Fit Index (NFI) -- The values of NFI should be larger than 0.9.

(3) Comparative Fit Index (CFI) -- The values of CFI should be larger than 0.9.

(4) Incremental Fit Index (IFI) -- The values of IFI should be larger than 0.9.

(5) Relative Fit Index (RFI) -- The values of RFI should be larger than 0.9.

3. Parsimonious fit measures

(1) Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI) -- The values of PNFI should be larger than 0.5.

(2) Parsimonious Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) -- The values of PGFI should be larger than 0.5.

(3) Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) -- the values of AIC for the theoretical model less than that of independent model and saturated model are indicative of an acceptance of the model.

(4) Hoelter's Critical N (CN) -- The values larger than 200 are indicative of an acceptance of the model.

(5) Normed chi-square -- The values ranging from 1.0 to 5.0 are indicative of an acceptance of the model.

Fit of Internal Structure

For fit of internal structure, the following standards were used.

1. For the measurement model, the test of parameter estimates of observed variables should be significant. If they are significant, this means that they can effectively reflect latent variable.
2. Construct reliability was used to test the reliability of latent variable. Its value should be larger than 0.6. Average variances extracted were used to understand how much variance was not contributed to by the measurement error. Generally, the values should be larger than 0.5. The formula of construct reliability is the following:

$$\rho_c = \frac{(\Sigma\lambda)^2}{\left[(\Sigma\lambda)^2 + \Sigma(\theta)\right]}$$

ρ c= Construct reliability

λ = standardized coefficients of observed variables that loads on the latent variable.

θ = the measurement errors for the observed variables.

The formula of average variance extracted is the following:

$$\rho_v = \frac{\left(\sum \lambda^2\right)}{\left[\sum \lambda^2 + \sum(\theta)\right]}$$

3. The test of the structural model included direction, magnitude, and R^2 of parameters. Parameter estimates should be significant. The direction must be corrective, and R^2 must have enough magnitude of explanation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study. It is divided into three sections: (a) a description of the demographics of the sample; (b) the evaluation of the sub-models for leadership practices, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction; and (c) the evaluation of the full model that was used to test the hypotheses of this study. According to Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) theory, in order to improve construct validity, one should evaluate the measurement sub-models first. When the measurement sub-models are shown to have good performance, then, in the second stage, the full model is estimated in order to assess the overall fit as well as individual components. These procedures are very important because bad measures may violate the overall evaluation and may lead to problems with the structural relationships.

The hypotheses of the models will be presented before they are evaluated. The process of each model evaluation includes screening of raw data, offending estimates, overall fit, and component fit measures. The term "offending estimates" is used to refer to any value that exceeds its theoretical limits.

Description of the Demographics of the Sample

The questionnaire used for this study included five items concerning the respondents' characteristics. Table 4.1 summarizes these results. The sample of this included 469 health clubs employees in Taiwan. There were 210 (44.8 %) male subjects and 259 (55.2 %) female subjects. The majority of employees (33.9 %) had graduated from a university. The second largest group (31.3%) had finished junior college. Approximately one-four (25.2 %) have a senior high school diploma and 5.1 % of the respondents graduated from graduate school. 3.0 % of the respondents had completed junior high school, and the smallest group (1.5%) had completed elementary school only. Most of the subjects (64.8 %) were married. It also shows that 29.0 % were single, 5.1 % were divorced, 1.1 % were widowed. The subjects were also grouped according to major: (a) science and engineering (35), (b) business (31), (c) allied health professions (4), (d) liberal arts or criminal justices (98), (e) social sciences (21), (f) agriculture (14), (g) Physical education and recreational sports (156), (h) other (110). Because many of the respondents only graduated from elementary or junior high school, they did not have a major and were classified as " other". Physical education and recreational sports majors made up the largest percentage in this grouping (35.8 %). The last category described tenure with supervisors. Many respondents (about 30.7 %) worked with their supervisors 13 to 24 months, 25.2 % of respondents have been worked with their supervisors 6 months or less; 17.5 % between 7 to 12 months; and 14.5 % between 25 to 36 months. The remaining 12.2 % of respondents have worked with their supervisors over 37 months.

Table 4.1.
Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

Variables	Frequencies	Percentages
Gender		
Male	210	44.8 %
Female	259	55.2 %

Table 4.1.
Continued

Variables	Frequencies	Percentages
Educational level		
Elementary school	7	1.5 %
Junior high school	14	3.0 %
Senior high school	118	25.2 %
Junior college	147	31.3 %
University	159	33.9 %
Graduate school	24	5.1 %
Marital status		
Single	136	29.0 %
Married	304	64.8 %
Divorced	24	5.1 %
Widowed	5	1.1 %
Major		
Science and engineering	35	7.5 %
Business	31	7.0 %
Allied health professions	4	0.8 %
Liberal arts or criminal justice	98	19.8 %
Social sciences	21	5.0 %
Agriculture	14	3.5 %
P. E. and recreational sports	156	35.8 %
Other	110	20.6 %
Tenure with supervisor		
6 months or less	118	25.2 %
7 to 12 months	82	17.5 %
13 to 24 months	144	30.7 %
25 to 36 months	68	14.5 %
Over 37 months	57	12.2 %
Totals	469	100.0 %

Evaluation of the Measurement Sub-models

According to the theoretical model proposed, there would be three measurement sub-models that need to be tested for the first stage: (a) a first-order confirmatory factor measurement model of leadership practices, (b) a first-order confirmatory factor measurement model of organizational commitment, (c) a first-order confirmatory factor measurement model of job satisfaction.

Evaluation of the Measurement Model for Leadership Practices

Figure 4.1 shows a path diagram of the hypothetical first-order measurement model for leadership practices. The formal specification of the model can be represented by the following set of equations:

1. Measurement equations

   Challenging the Process = *f* (Leadership Practices, δ_1)

   $X_1 = \lambda_1\xi_1 + \delta_1$

   Inspiring a Shared Vision = *f* (Leadership Practices, δ_2)

   $X_2 = \lambda_2\xi_1 + \delta_2$

   Enabling Others to Act = *f* (Leadership Practices, δ_3)

   $X_3 = \lambda_3\xi_1 + \delta_3$

   Modeling the Way = *f* (Leadership Practices, δ_4)

   $X_4 = \lambda_4\xi_1 + \delta_4$

   Encouraging the Heart = *f* (Leadership Practices, δ_5)

   $X_5 = \lambda_5\xi_1 + \delta_5$

2. Regulations

E (δ) = 0. δ and ξ are uncorrelated.

Model Hypotheses for Leadership Practices

It was hypothesized a priori that the measurement model of leadership practices:

1. Leadership practices is a latent exogenous variable, which is represented by five observed exogenous variables, challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.
2. Errors associated with each observed exogenous variable are uncorrelated.

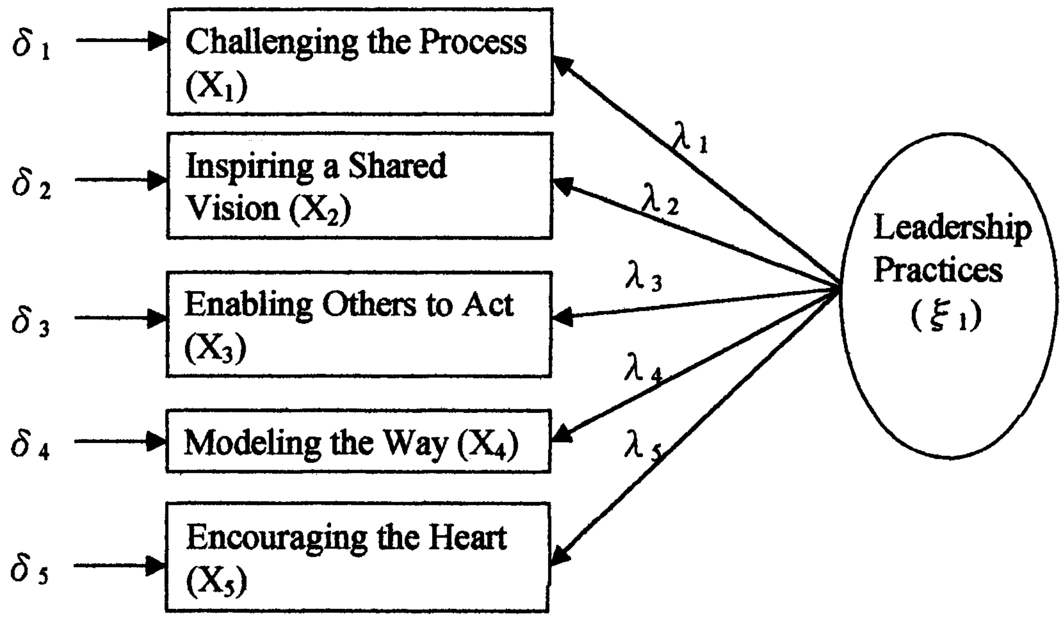

Figure 4.1 Path diagram of the measurement model for leadership practices.

Screening of Raw Data for Leadership Practices

Table 4.2 shows the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, and normality testing for the five observed variables for the measurement instrument of leadership practices. The test of univariate variables shows that all the observed variables did not pass the requirement. This means that they are not normal. The test of multivariate normality shows that the distribution formed from the five observed variables was not normal. However, Boomsma & Hoogland (2001) and Olsson et al. (2000) suggested that if the value of kurtosis is not too large, such as 25, then ML estimate still has the property of robustness. This study found that the values of kurtosis were between 0.02 and 0.30. This indicates that ML could be used to estimate this model.

Table 4.2
Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, and the Test of Normality for Leadership Practices

Observed variable	Means	Standard deviations	Skewness	Kurtosis	Test of univariate normality	
					χ^2	P
Challenging the process	3.30	0.73	-0.20	0.30	5.24	0.07
Inspiring a shared vision	3.28	0.76	-0.29	0.05	6.84	0.03
Enabling others to act	3.37	0.76	-0.39	0.06	11.91	0.00
Modeling the way	3.33	0.76	-0.38	0.03	11.42	0.00
Encouraging the heart	3.30	0.73	-0.47	0.02	17.38	0.00
Test of multivariate normality			$\chi^2 = 78.73$, P = 0.00			

Offending Estimates for Leadership Practices

The term "offending estimates" is used to refer to any value that exceeds its theoretical limits. Many scholars call for the examination of offending estimates before evaluating model fit. When there are any offending estimates, it means something is wrong in the parameter estimation. In terms of Hair, et al.'s suggestion (1998), there are three kinds of offending estimates. There are (1) negative error variance or non-significant error variances for any construct, (2) standardized coefficients exceeding or very close to 1.0, or (3) very large standard errors associated with any estimated coefficient.

Table 4.3 shows parameter estimates of the measurement model of leadership practices. It shows that the standardized coefficients were between 0.85 and 0.91. These coefficients do not exceed 0.95, which means they were not too close to 1.0. The values of standard errors of the observed variables were between 0.01 and 0.03, which indicates they were not very large. The measurement errors were also between 0.18 and 0.28, and are significant. These results indicate that there were no offending estimates. Therefore, the researcher could move forward to evaluation of the overall model fit.

Table 4.3
Parameter Estimates of the Measurement Model for Leadership Practices

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
λ_1	0.62	0.03	22.66*	0.85
λ_2	0.67	0.03	24.05*	0.88
λ_3	0.69	0.03	25.20*	0.91
λ_4	0.67	0.03	23.94*	0.88
λ_5	0.63	0.03	23.69*	0.87

Table 4.3
Continued.

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
δ_1	0.15	0.01	12.95*	0.28
δ_2	0.13	0.01	12.12*	0.22
δ_3	0.10	0.01	11.10*	0.18
δ_4	0.13	0.01	12.20*	0.23
δ_5	0.12	0.01	12.37*	0.24

* $P<0.05$

The Evaluation of Overall Model Fit for Leadership Practices

LISREL 8.53 was used for estimation of the measurement model of leadership practices. Overall fit measures are presented in Table 4.4 and a path diagram with standardized parameter estimates is presented in Figure 4.2. The model was evaluated by three separate types of measures: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures.

Absolute fit measures.

As shown in Table 4.4, four of six indices pass the requirement. There are GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, and SRMR. The likelihood-ratio χ^2 value, although statistically significant, indicated an un-acceptance of the model. Many scholars suggested that this measure is not very important, and need not be necessarily heeded. For ECVI of the model, its value is larger than that of the saturated model, meaning that cross-validation is recommended for further research.

Incremental fit measures.

For the incremental fit measures, they performed very well. All measures are far lager than the recommended value of 0.90, indicating a good fit for the model.

Parsimonious fit measures.

For the parsimonious fit measures, they did not perform very well. Only CN passed the requirement, indicative that this model adequately represents the sample data. The value of AIC also calls for an independent sample for future research in order to test for cross-validation. The poor performance of PNFI and PGFI indicated the models were not parsimonious.

Although the results show that the model is valid, improvement of predictive validity and parsimony of the model also needs to be taken into consideration for future research.

Table 4.4
Overall Fit Measures for the Measurement Model of Leadership Practices

Fit indices	Statistic
Absolute fit measures	
Chi-square with 5 degrees of freedom	27.29 (p = 0.00)
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.98
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.02
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.10
Expected cross-validation index (ECVI)	0.10
ECVI for saturated model	0.06
ECVI for independence model	4.61
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.91
Incremental fit measures	
Chi-square with 10 degrees of freedom	2149.81
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.98
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.99

Table 4.4
Continued.

Fit indices	Statistic
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.99
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.99
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.97
Parsimonious fit measures	
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	0.49
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	0.33
Independence AIC	2159.81
Model AIC	48.90
Saturated AIC	30.00
Critical N (CN)	259.78
Normed Chi-square	5.46

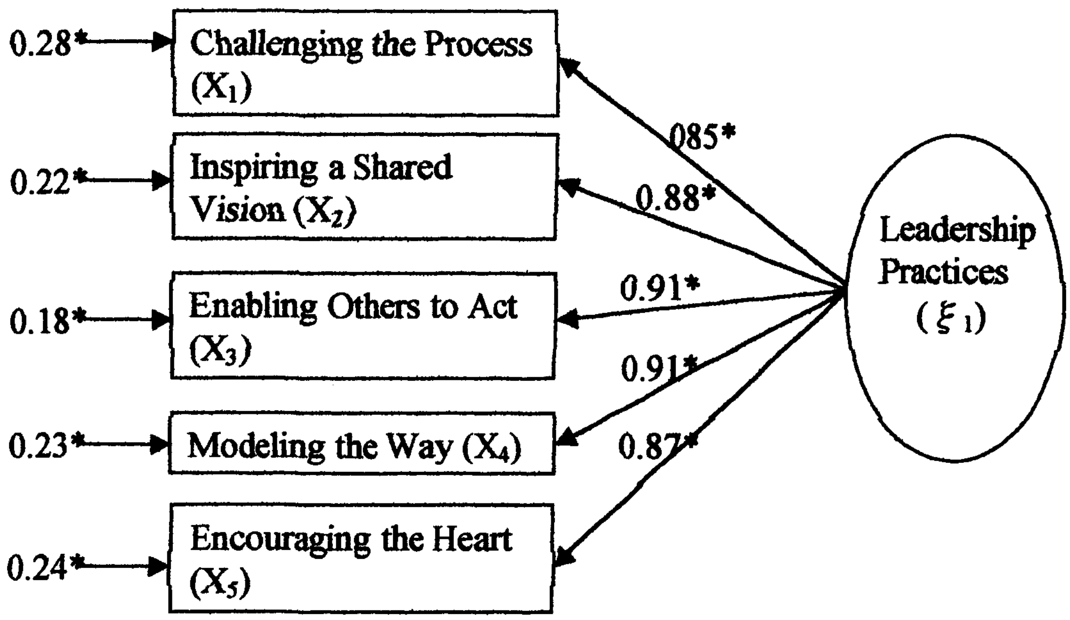

Figure 4.2 Standardized parameters of the measurement model for leadership practices.

The Component Fit Measures for Leadership Practices

In this part, individual observed variables were examined in order to understand the internal quality of the model. As shown in Table 4.3, all observed variable loadings were significant (at $p < 0.05$ or better), as indicated by T-values well in excess of 1.96 in absolute terms. This means that the observed variables validly reflect the construct of leadership practices. Among the five observed variables, λ_3, enabling others to act, had the highest standardized loading, indicating that it is the one that best reflects the latent construct of leadership practices. The second and third best were λ_2 and λ_4, inspiring a shared vision and modeling the way, respectively.

Table 4.5 shows construct reliability and average variance extracted for individual measured variables and the construct of leadership practices. The values of R^2 for five observed variables ranged from 0.72 to 0.82. All values of R^2 were larger than the recommended level of 0.50, indicating that they are reliable. The construct reliability for leadership practices was 0.84, larger than 0.60. This means leadership practices is a reliable construct. The value of average variance extracted for this construct is 0.77, indicating that the underlying latent construct accounts for a greater amount of variance in the observed variables than do the measurement errors.

In summary, the individual component fit measures for the measurement model of leadership practices performed very well, indicating the construct is valid and reliable.

Table 4.5
CR and AVE for Individual Observed Variables and Construct

Variables	R^2	Construct reliability	Average variance extracted
Leadership practices		0.84	0.77
Challenging the process	0.72		
Inspiring a shared vision	0.78		
Enabling others to act	0.82		
Modeling the way	0.77		
Encouraging the heart	0.76		

Evaluation of the Measurement Model for Organizational Commitment

Figure 4.3 shows a path diagram of the hypothetical first-order measurement model for organizational commitment. The formal specification of the model can be represented by the following set of equations:

1. Measurement equations

Affective Commitment = f(Organizational Commitment, δ_1)

$X_1 = \lambda_1\xi_1 + \delta_1$

Continuance Commitment = f(Organizational Commitment, δ_2)

$X_2 = \lambda_2\xi_1 + \delta_2$

Normative Commitment = f(Organizational Commitment, δ_3)

$X_3 = \lambda_3\xi_1 + \delta_3$

2. Regulations

$E(\delta) = 0$. δ and ξ are uncorrelated.

Model Hypotheses for Organizational Commitment

It was hypothesized a priori that the measurement model of leadership practices:

1. Organizational commitment is a latent endogenous variable, which is represented by three observed endogenous variables: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.
2. Errors associated with each observed endogenous variables are uncorrelated.

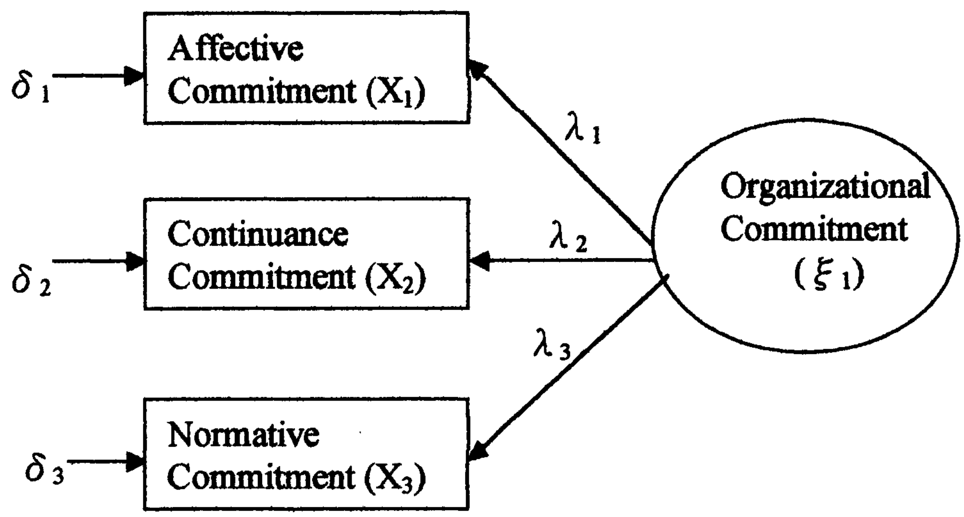

Figure 4.3 Path diagram of the measurement model for organizational commitment.

Screening of Raw Data for Organizational Commitment

Table 4.6 shows the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, and the test of normality for the three observed variables for the measurement instrument of organizational commitment. The test of univariate variables shows that all observed variables did not pass the requirement. This means that they are not normal. Meanwhile, the test of multivariate normality also shows that the distribution formed from the three observed variables was not normal. Because the value of kurtosis, ranging from 0.72 to 0.06, is not too large, it is indicated that ML estimate could be used properly.

Table 4.6
Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, and the Test of Normality for Organizational Commitment

Observed variable	Means	Standard deviations	Skewness	Kurtosis	Test of univariate normality	
					χ^2	P
Affective commitment	4.12	0.89	-0.16	0.72	8.73	0.01
Continuance commitment	4.12	1.00	-0.29	0.06	6.86	0.03
Normative commitment	4.28	1.01	-0.43	0.21	15.40	0.00
Test of multivariate normality			$\chi^2 = 46.15$, $P = 0.00$			

Offending Estimates for Organizational Commitment

Table 4.7 shows parameter estimates for the measurement model of organizational commitment. It shows that the standardized coefficients were between 0.86 and 0.68. These coefficients do not exceed 0.95, which means they were not too close to 1.0. The values of standard errors of the observed variables were between 0.03 and 0.04, meaning they were not very large. The measurement errors were also between 0.54 and 0.26, and are significant. These results indicate that there were no offending estimates. Therefore, the evaluation process could move forward to the overall model fit.

Table 4.7
Parameter Estimates of the Measurement Model for Organizational Commitment.

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
λ_1	0.61	0.04	15.60*	0.68
λ_2	0.83	0.04	19.60*	0.83
λ_3	0.87	0.04	20.50*	0.86
δ_1	0.42	0.03	12.91*	0.54
δ_2	0.31	0.04	8.01*	0.31
δ_3	0.26	0.04	6.52*	0.26

* $P<0.05$

The Component Fit Measures for Organizational Commitment

Because the measurement model of organizational commitment was a saturated model, it had no degree of freedom. This is a kind of perfect fit and the model can not be disconfirmed. Therefore, the only way to assess the validity of this model is to examine the factor loadings for the individual observed variables. The path diagram with standardized parameter estimates is presented in Figure 4.4. Table 4.7 showed that the factor loadings for observed variables were significant (at $p < 0.05$ or better), as indicated by T-values well in excess of 1.96 in absolute terms. This consequence indicated that all the indicators could validly reflect the construct of organizational commitment. Among the three observed variables, λ_3 had the highest standardized loading. This means that normative commitment is the variable that can best reflect the construct of organizational commitment. The second one is λ_2, continuance commitment.

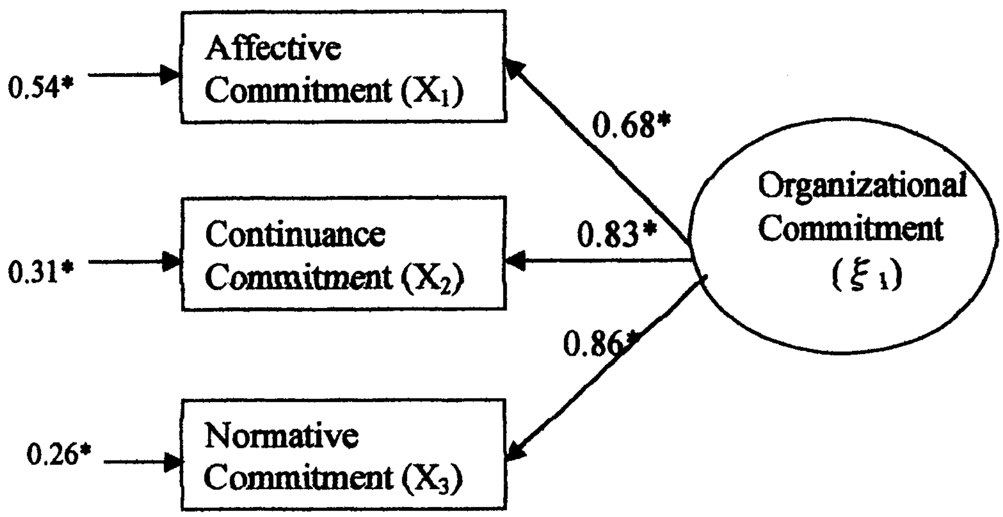

Figure 4.4 Standardized parameters of the measurement model for organizational commitment.

In this part, individual observed variables are examined in order to understand the internal quality of the model. As shown in Table 4.7, all observed variable loadings were significant (at $p < 0.05$ or better), as indicated by T-values well in excess of 1.96 in absolute terms. This means that the observed variables can validly reflect the construct for organizational commitment. Among the three observed variables, λ_3, normative commitment, had the highest standardized loading, indicative of that it is the one best reflecting the construct of organizational commitment. The second one was λ_2, continuance commitment.

Table 4.8 shows construct reliability and average variance extracted for the individual measured variables and the construct of organizational commitment. The values of R^2 for the three observed variables ranged from 0.46 to 0.74. Only the value of R^2 of affective commitment was a little bit lower than the recommended level of 0.50, the others are higher than 0.50. The construct reliability for organizational commitment was 0.78, larger than 0.60. This means organizational commitment is a reliable construct. The value of average variance extracted for this construct is 0.63, indicating that the underlying latent construct accounts for a greater amount of variance in the observed variables than do the measurement errors.

In sum, the components fit measures for the measurement model of organizational commitment did not perform poorly. Therefore, it can be said that the construct is valid and reliable.

Table 4.8
CR and AVE for Individual Observed Variables and Constructs

Variables	R^2	Construct reliability	Average variance extracted
Organizational commitment		0.78	0.63
Affective commitment	0.46		
Continuance commitment	0.69		
Normative commitment	0.74		

Evaluation of the Measurement Model for Job Satisfaction

Figure 4.5 shows a path diagram of the hypothetical first-order measurement model for job satisfaction. The formal specification of the model can be represented by the following set of equations:

1. Measurement equations

Pay = f (Job Satisfaction, δ_1)

$X_1 = \lambda_1\xi_1 + \delta_1$

Promotion = f (Job Satisfaction, δ_2)

$X_2 = \lambda_2\xi_1 + \delta_2$

Supervisor = f (Job Satisfaction, δ_3)

$X_3 = \lambda_3\xi_1 + \delta_3$

Co-workers = f (Job Satisfaction, δ_4)

$X_4 = \lambda_4\xi_1 + \delta_4$

Nature of Work = f (Job Satisfaction, δ_5)

$X_5 = \lambda_5\xi_1 + \delta_5$

2.Regulations

$E(\delta) = 0$. δ and ξ are uncorrelated.

Model Hypotheses for Job Satisfaction

It is hypothesized a priori that the measurement model of job satisfaction:

1. Job satisfaction is a latent endogenous variable, which is represented by five observed endogenous variables: coworkers, pay, promotion, supervisor and nature of work
2. Errors associated with each observed endogenous variable are uncorrelated.

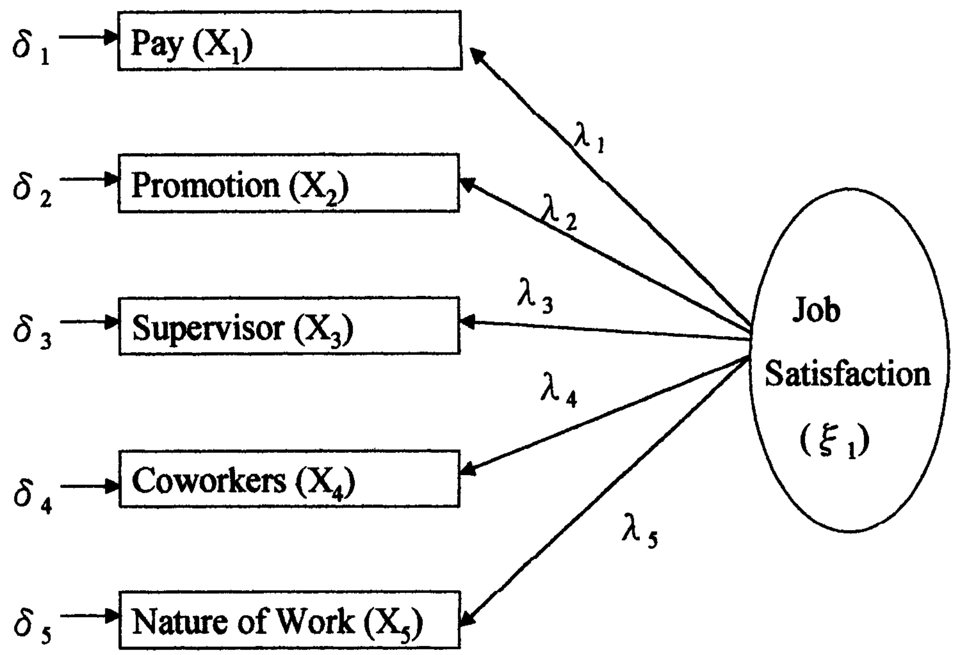

Figure 4.5 Path diagram of the measurement model for job satisfaction.

Screening of Raw Data for Job Satisfaction

Table 4.9 shows the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, and the test of normality for the five observed variables for the measurement instrument of job satisfaction. The test of univariate variables shows that four of the five observed variables did not pass the requirement, meaning that they are not normal. The variable of coworkers is the one that has normal distribution. The test of multivariate normality shows that the distribution formed from the five observed variables was not normal. This study found that the values of kurtosis were between 0.08 and 0.95. This indicates that ML could be used to estimate this model.

Table 4.9
Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, and the Test of Normality for Job Satisfaction

Observed variable	Means	Standard Deviations	Skewness	Kurtosis	Test of univariate normality	
					χ^2	P
Pay	4.07	0.93	-0.62	0.87	38.92	0.00
Promotion	4.02	0.94	-0.27	0.49	9.38	0.01
Supervisor	4.28	0.94	-0.02	0.95	9.72	0.01
Coworkers	4.48	1.00	-0.06	0.08	0.48	0.79
Nature of work	3.91	0.92	-0.04	0.76	7.26	0.03
Test of multivariate normality		$\chi^2 = 272.91$, P = 0.00				

Offending Estimates for Job Satisfaction

Table 4.10 shows parameter estimates of the measurement model of job satisfaction. It shows that the standardized coefficients were between 0.57 and 0.67. These coefficients did not exceed 0.95, which means they were not too close to 1.0. The values of standard errors of the observed variables were between 0.04 and 0.05, meaning they were not very large. The measurement errors were between 0.55 and 0.68, and are significant. These results indicate that there were no offending estimates. Therefore, the evaluation process could move forward to the overall model fit.

Table 4.10
Parameter Estimates of the Measurement Model for Job Satisfaction

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
λ_1	0.57	0.05	12.49*	0.60
λ_2	0.63	0.04	14.18*	0.67
λ_3	0.61	0.05	13.44*	0.64
λ_4	0.63	0.05	13.13*	0.63
λ_5	0.52	0.04	11.68*	0.57
δ_1	0.56	0.04	12.53*	0.64
δ_2	0.49	0.04	11.26*	0.55
δ_3	0.52	0.04	11.87*	0.59
δ_4	0.60	0.05	12.11*	0.60
δ_5	0.58	0.04	12.98*	0.68

* $P<0.05$

The Evaluation of Overall Model Fit for Job Satisfaction

Overall fit measures are presented in Table 4.11 and a path diagram with standardized parameter estimates is presented in Figure 4.6. The model is evaluated by three separate types of measures: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures.

Absolute fit measures.

As shown in Table 4.11, four of six indices pass the requirement. They are GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, SRMR. The likelihood-ratio χ^2 value shows an un-acceptance of the model. The value of ECVI for the model is larger than that of the saturated model, indicative that cross-validation is required for further research.

Incremental fit measures.

For the incremental fit measures, four of five indices performed well. They are NNFI, NFI, CFI, and IFI. The value of RFI was just a little lower than the recommended level of 0.90. This result indicates that the model fit is not very good, only accepted.

Parsimonious fit measures.

The parsimonious fit measures did not perform very well. Only the value of CN is larger than the recommended level of 200, indicating that this model adequately represents the sample data. The value of AIC of the model is larger than that of saturated model, indicative that another independent sample is needed to test cross-validation. The bad performance of PNFI and PGFI indicated the models were not parsimonious.

These results are similar to that of the measurement model of leadership practices. The measurement model of job satisfaction is valid, but enhancement of predictive validity should be taken into consideration in future research. Otherwise, reduction of the variables must be considered in order to fulfill the requirement of parsimony.

Table 4.11
Overall Fit Measures for the Measurement Model of Job Satisfaction

Fit indices	Statistic
Absolute fit measures	
Chi-square with 5 degrees of freedom	29.70 ($p = 0.00$)
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.98

Table 4.11
Continued.

Fit indices	Statistic
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.04
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.10
Expected cross-validation index (ECVI)	0.10
ECVI for saturated model	0.064
ECVI for independence model	1.12
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.93
Incremental fit measures	
Chi-square with 10 degrees of freedom	516.17
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.90
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.94
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.95
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.95
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.88
Parsimonious fit measures	
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	0.47
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	0.33
Independence AIC	526.17
Model AIC	47.21
Saturated AIC	30.00
Critical N (CN)	238.76
Normed chi-square	5.94

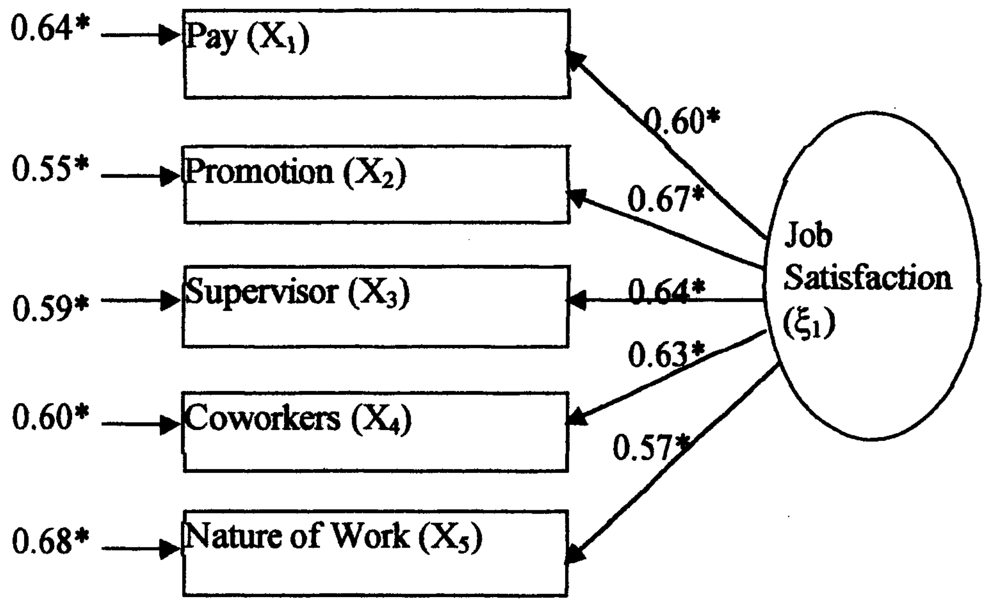

Figure 4.6 Standardized parameters of the measurement model for job satisfaction.

The Component Fit Measures for Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table 4.9, all observed variable loadings were significant (at $p < 0.05$ or better), as indicated by T-values well in excess of 1.96 in absolute terms. This means that the observed variables can validly reflect the construct of job satisfaction. Among the five observed variables, λ_2, promotion, was the one that best reflected job satisfaction. The second one was λ_2, supervisor.

Table 4.12 shows construct reliability and average variance extracted for the individual measured variables and the construct of job satisfaction. The values of R^2 for the five observed variables ranged from 0.32 to 0.45, indicating that all values of R^2

were lower than the recommended level of 0.50. The construct reliability for job satisfaction was 0.76, larger than 0.60, meaning job satisfaction is a reliable construct. The values of average variance extracted for this construct is 0.39, indicating that the underlying latent construct accounts for a lesser amount of variance in the observed variables than do the measurement errors.

Table 4.12
CR and AVE for Individual Observed Variables and Constructs

Variables	R^2	Construct reliability	Average variance extracted
Job satisfaction		0.76	0.39
Pay	0.36		
Promotion	0.45		
Supervisor	0.41		
Coworkers	0.40		
Nature of work	0.32		

Evaluation of the Full Model

In terms of the test of three sub-measurements in the previous sections, although they had some problems that need to be overcome in future research; the three sub-measurements had internal validity. That is, they still can be used to test the theoretical relationships proposed in this study.

The Structural Relationship of the Full Model

Previous studies have indicated that leadership practices have a direct impact on job satisfaction and an indirect impact on job satisfaction via organizational commitment. Organizational commitment has a direct impact on job satisfaction. In terms of this theoretical relationship, leadership practices in structural equation modeling was seen as an exogenous latent construct, while organizational commitment and job satisfaction were viewed as endogenous latent constructs. Two hypotheses for structural model are recruited as following:

Hypothesis I: Leadership practices directly influence job satisfaction and indirectly influence it through organizational commitment.

Hypothesis II: Organizational commitment directly influences job satisfaction.

A path diagram of the full model tested is presented in Figure 4.7.

The Assessment of Validity of the Full Model

In order to test the two hypotheses set above, the significance of γ_1, γ_2, and β_1 in Figure 4.7, it must be ensured that the full model is accepted. Therefore, overall model fit needs to be assessed.

Screening of Offending Estimates

Tables 4.13 and 4.14 show parameter estimates of the full model and measurement errors respectively. In the tables, all regression coefficients and measurement errors performed very well. That is, there were no negative error variances nor any non-significant error variances for any of the variables, no standardized coefficients exceeding or very close to 1.00, and no very large standard errors associated with any of the estimated coefficients. Thus, assessment of the overall model fit could be processed.

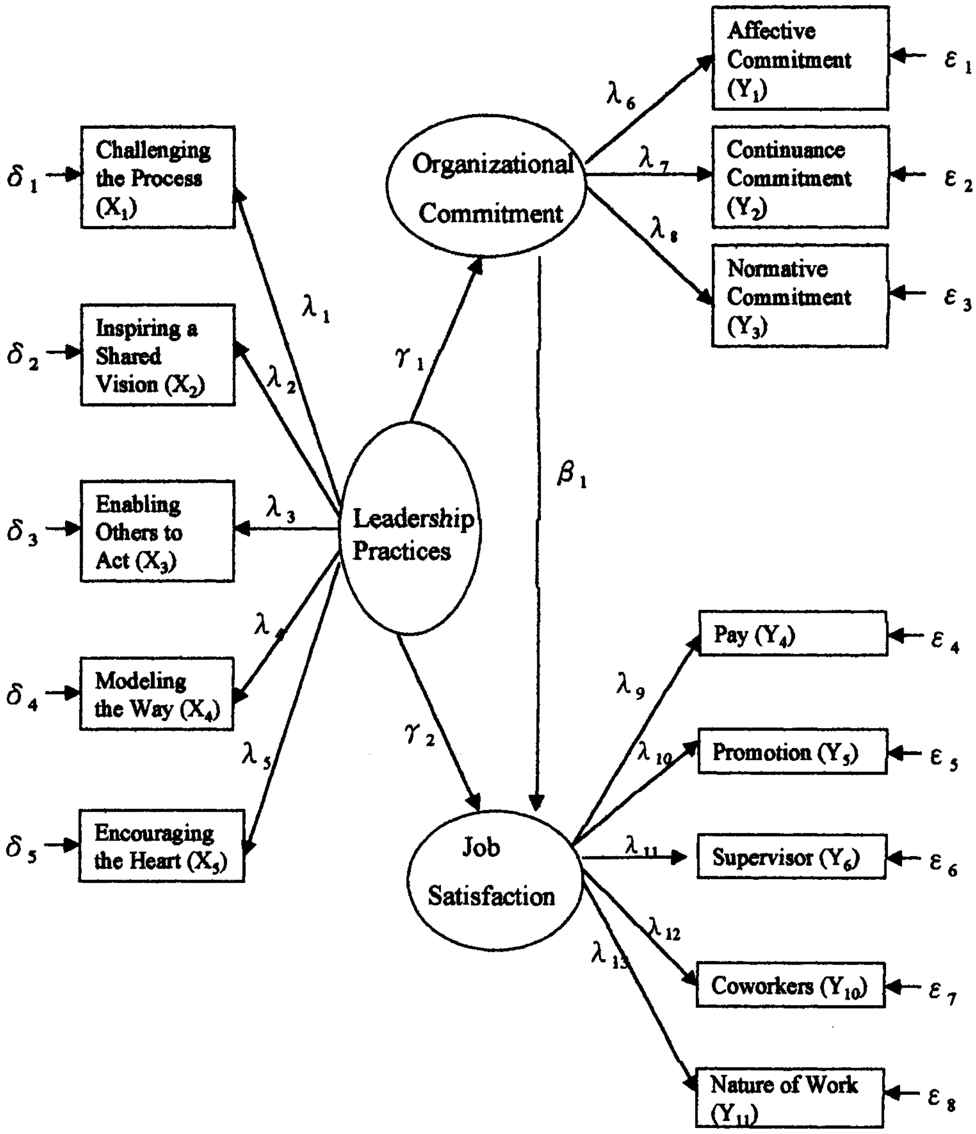

Figure 4.7 Path diagram of the full model.

Table 4.13
Regression Coefficient Estimates of the Full SEM Model

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
λ_1	0.62	0.03	22.75*	0.85
λ_2	0.66	0.03	23.96*	0.88
λ_3	0.69	0.03	25.17*	0.91
λ_4	0.67	0.03	23.95*	0.88
λ_5	0.64	0.03	23.84*	0.88
λ_6	0.62	0.04	15.46*	0.70
λ_7	0.79	0.04	17.98*	0.79
λ_8	0.89	0.04	19.97*	0.89
λ_9	0.51	0.05	9.78*	0.54
λ_{10}	0.60	0.05	11.05*	0.63
λ_{11}	0.67	0.06	11.96*	0.71
λ_{12}	0.65	0.06	11.30*	0.65
λ_{13}	0.50	0.05	9.73*	0.54
γ_1	0.66	0.06	11.83*	0.66
γ_2	0.34	0.06	5.32*	0.34
β_1	0.55	0.08	7.16*	0.55

Table 4.14
Measurement Errors of the Full SEM Model

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
ε_1	0.41	0.03	13.27*	0.52
ε_2	0.38	0.03	11.49*	0.38
ε_3	0.21	0.03	7.27*	0.21

Table 4.14
Continued.

Parameter	Non-standardized coefficient	Standard error	T-value	Standardized coefficient
ε_4	0.62	0.04	13.99*	0.71
ε_5	0.53	0.04	13.17*	0.60
ε_6	0.44	0.04	11.95*	0.49
ε_7	0.57	0.04	12.92*	0.57
ε_8	0.60	0.04	14.02*	0.71
δ_1	0.15	0.01	13.03*	0.27
δ_2	0.13	0.01	12.36*	0.23
δ_3	0.10	0.01	11.37*	0.18
δ_4	0.13	0.01	12.37*	0.23
δ_5	0.12	0.01	12.44*	0.23

* $P<0.05$

Overall Fit measures for the Full Model

Overall fit measures are presented in Table 4.15 and a path diagram with standardized parameter estimates is presented in Figure 4.8

Absolute fit measures.

As shown in Table 4.15, ECVI performed poorly. That is, cross-validation continues to be a problem for the full model. The likelihood-ratio χ^2 value also indicates an un-acceptance of the full model. Except these two measures, other absolute fit measures shows that the full model could be accepted. In terms of these results, the full model is valid.

Incremental fit measures.

The incremental fit measures for the full model performed very well. All measures are larger than the recommended level of 0.90, indicating an acceptance for the model. Therefore, the full model is valid.

Parsimonious fit measures.

After combining the three sub-measurements into one full model, it performs very differently from that of three sub-models. PNFI and PGFI passed the requirement. Normed chi-square is less than 5, a looser level of criterion. Theses results indicate that the model is parsimonious. The value of Critical N does not exceed 200, indicating a problem with sample size. The value of model AIC is not lower than that of saturated AIC, meaning that cross-validation is required in future research.

As a whole, most of the overall fit measures indicated an acceptance of the full model. Therefore, the full model could be said to have construct validity.

The Evaluation of Structural Relationship

When the full model has overall validity, the structural relationship could be assessed to see whether the hypotheses proposed are supported. From Table 4.13, the standardized coefficient for β_1 was 0.55, with a standard error of 0.08 and a T-value of 7.16, indicating that hypothesis II is supported. Standardized coefficient for γ_2 was 0.34, with a standard error of 0.06 and a T-value of 5.32. Standardized coefficient for γ_1 was 0.66, with a standard error of 0.06 and a T-value of 11.83. This means that leadership practice has direct effect of 0.34 on job satisfaction and indirect effect of 0.36 (0.66×0.55) on job satisfaction. Hypothesis I is supported.

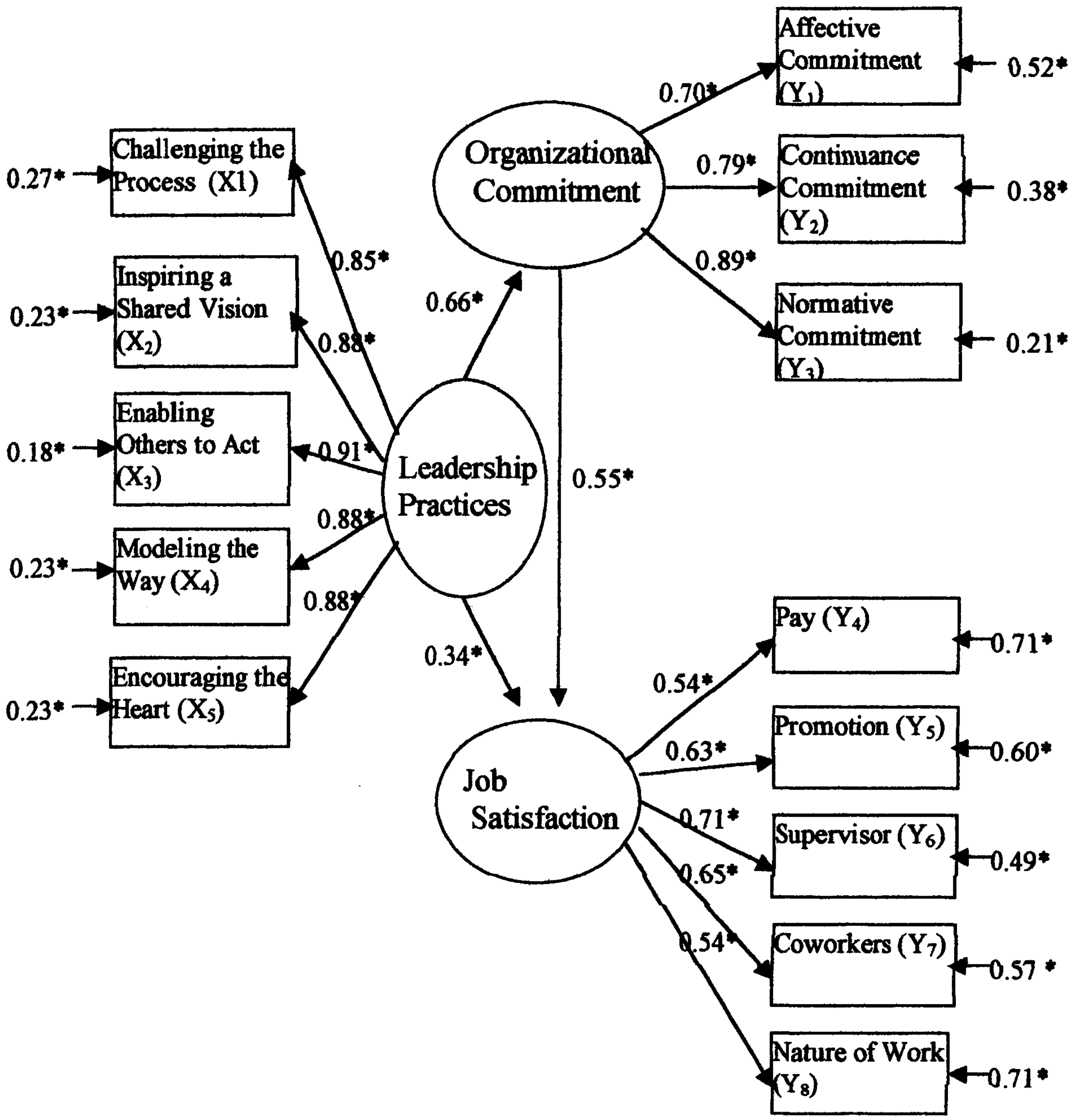

Figure 4.8 Standardized parameters of the full model.

Table 4.15
Overall Fit Measures of the Full Model

Fit indices	Statistic
Absolute fit measures	
Chi-square with 62 degrees of freedom	242.99 (p = 0.00)
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.93
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.04
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.08
Expected cross-validation index (ECVI)	0.62
ECVI for saturated model	0.39
ECVI for independence model	8.43
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.90
Incremental fit measures	
Chi-square with 78 degrees of freedom	3921.29
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	0.94
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.94
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.95
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.95
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.92
Parsimonious fit measures	
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	0.75
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	0.63
Independence AIC	3947.29
Model AIC	288.87
Saturated AIC	182.00
Critical N (CN)	175.89
Normed chi-square	3.92

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the causal relationships among leadership practices, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in Taiwanese health clubs. This chapter is divided into three sections: summary, discussion, and recommendations. The summary section provides the findings of the measurement models and the full model. The discussion section provides an explanation of the results and clarifies how they are related to the literature. The final section includes limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

Summary

The Findings of the Measurement Models

In this study, three measurement models were tested. These models included a measurement model of leadership practices, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The results of the study demonstrated that most of fit measures indicate an acceptance of the measurement model of leadership practices, meaning that the model was valid. Regression coefficients obtained suggest that all of the observed variables could validly reflect the construct of leadership practices. The results of the regression analysis support that both the construct and the observed variables were reliable. As a whole, the measurement model for leadership practices was valid and reliable. The results also indicate some weakness for this model. The improvement of predictive validity and parsimony of the model also needs to be taken into consideration and tested with future research.

The measurement of organizational commitment was a saturated model, therefore there were no overall fit measures to be assessed. The only way to examine its validity and reliability was via component fit measures. The results of the study indicated that all observed variables could validly reflect the construct of organizational commitment. Except for affective commitment, all of the variables were reliable. The construct of organizational commitment is also reliable. In summary, the measurement model for organizational commitment is valid and fairly reliable.

The results of the research indicated an acceptance of the measurement model of job satisfaction. Although the model could be perceived to be valid internally, it is not parsimonious and also does not have good predictive validity. This consequence calls for further cross-validation work.

The Findings for the Full Model

The full model in this study was a combination of three measurement models and a structural model. The most important part of the full model is its structural model. The structural model was constructed by the two research hypotheses: Hypothesis I proposed that leadership practices directly influence job satisfaction and indirectly influence it through organizational commitment. Hypothesis II proposed that organizational commitment directly influences job satisfaction. The research results indicate a reasonable fit for the full model, which means the model is valid. The examination of structural coefficients showed that Hypothesis I and II were supported. It is worth noticing that leadership practices have direct effect on job satisfaction, but the indirect effect is larger than its direct effect. The results show that the direct effect is 0.34, but the indirect effect is 0.36. This consequence indicates that organizational commitment could play an important role with intervention.

Discussion

This study found that leadership practices directly influence job satisfaction and indirectly influence it through organization commitment. This suggests that the indirect impact is more important than the direct impact for leadership practices on job satisfaction. This consequence indicates that organization commitment could play an important role with intervention. This indicates that establishing a higher level of organizational commitment may be more important than focusing only on job satisfaction. The findings in this study were similar to other studies (Friedrich, 2001; Medley and Larochelle, 1995; Yusof, 1998; Hater and Bass, 1988; Dunham-Taylor, 2000; McNeese-Smith, 1996; Pool, 1997; Kerr et al., 1974; Shoemaker, 1999) examining the relationships among leadership and job satisfaction. In these studies, it was found that leadership behavior had a positive impact on job satisfaction.

This study also found that organizational commitment directly influences job satisfaction. This finding also coincides with Begley and Czajka (1993), Lum et al (1998), and Bateman and Strasser (1984). In these studies, job satisfaction was found to be a result rather than a cause of organizational commitment. This suggests that the employees may come to develop attitudes that are consistent with his or her existing level of commitment to the employing organization.

Recommendations for Future Research

No matter whether considering the measurement model or the full model, the values of ECVI and AIC indicated a problem with predictive validation. As this may capitalize on sample idiosyncrasy, the researcher recommends conducting a cross-validation study using another sample in future research.

Another important limitation of this study is that this study only dealt with the issues of leadership practices, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. This is a small integration model so other mechanisms influencing job satisfaction could not be comprehensively examined. For future research, the researcher calls for the integration of other factors, such as personal characteristics, work motivation and organizational culture.

Finally, all analyses were based on cross-sectional data. This means that longitudinal evaluation of the model could not be done. It would be interesting to examine the relationships among leadership practices, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction across time. To deal with this aspect could enhance nomological validity for the theory proposed in the full model.

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APPENDIX A

CHINESE AND ENGLISH VERSIONS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

親愛的健康俱樂部員工：

這是一份純學術性問卷，目的在探討台灣地區健康俱樂部的主管領導行爲、組織承諾與工作滿意度之間的關係。請您撥冗填答此問卷，您所提供的答案，對於學術上及台灣健康俱樂部之經營與發展具重大的貢獻。

問卷中題目的答案並無所謂的「對」或「錯」，期盼你能詳細、真實地作答。本問劵採自願填答方式，約二十分鐘可完成。

本問卷採取匿名方式進行，所得資料僅提供論文分析及研究之用，絕不會對外揭露，盡請安心塡答，並請將塡答完成之問卷交還原發卷者。

在此衷心感謝您的支持與協助。

敬祝

萬事如意

美國體育學院博士候選人　鄭桂玫 敬上

中華民國　九十二　年　一　月　十　日

第壹部份 基本資料

本部分欲了解你的基本資料，請塡寫或勾選適當的答案。

一、性別：□男 □女

二、教育程度：□國小 □國中 □高中 □專科 □大學 □研究所

三、婚姻狀況：□未婚 □已婚 □離婚 □喪偶

四、畢業之科系：□理工科 □商科 □醫護科□文法科 □社會科 □農科 □體育或休閒運動相關科 □其他

五、您與這位主管共事的時間有多久？ _____年 _____月

第貳部份 領導行爲評估量表

本部分共有30題，目的在評量您的主管之領導行爲，請依據下面的分數評量表圈選出你的主管之行爲屬性發生之頻率。

1	2	3	4	5
幾乎不曾發生	很少發生	有時會發生	較常發生	經常發生

我的主管…………

1. 會尋求具挑戰性的機會以證明他/她的能力與技術。-------------- 1 2 3 4 5
2. 會盡力說明未來發展形態以期共同開創未來。-------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
3. 善於培養合作關係。-- 1 2 3 4 5
4. 爲員工樹立好榜樣。-- 1 2 3 4 5
5. 會稱讚工作表現佳者。-- 1 2 3 4 5
6. 會激發我們嘗試新方法。-- 1 2 3 4 5
7. 會提出具說服力的組織願景。------------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
8. 樂意聽取不同意見。-- 1 2 3 4 5
9. 確保同事與我皆能達到議定的標準。------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
10. 對我們的能力有信心。-- 1 2 3 4 5
11. 會向組織外尋求改進之道並跟上最新的發展趨勢。-------------- 1 2 3 4 5
12. 與我們分享他/她對未來的憧憬。-------------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
13. 尊重我與我同事。-- 1 2 3 4 5
14. 遵守其承諾。--- 1 2 3 4 5
15. 對於他人的貢獻所進行的獎勵方式很有創意。------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
16. 意外狀況發生時會進行了解。------------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
17. 讓我們了解如何實現我們的長期利益。-------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
18. 營造工作環境的互信氣氛。-------------------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
19. 領導原則鮮明。-- 1 2 3 4 5
20. 對支持共享價值觀者表示稱許。---------------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
21. 即使有可能會失敗也會嘗試新構想。---------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
22. 對未來抱持熱忱與樂觀的態度。-------------------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
23. 讓我們決定如何完成自己的工作。------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
24. 確切地訂定目標、規劃與里程碑。------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
25. 一定會想辦法慶功。-- 1 2 3 4 5
26. 主動克服困難。-- 1 2 3 4 5
27. 確切地說出我們工作的意義所在。------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5
28. 讓我們參與規劃未來。-- 1 2 3 4 5
29. 循序漸進達成目標並將規劃案分開進行。---------------------- 1 2 3 4 5
30. 對他人的貢獻表稱許與鼓勵。------------------------------------ 1 2 3 4 5

第參部份 組織承諾評估量表

本部分共有 18 題，目的在評估貴公司所有成員一般的想法及行爲，請依照您對貴公司的看法依滿意或不滿意程度由下列 7 選項中圈選出各問題的答案。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
非常 不同意	部分 不同意	稍微 不同意	既不同意 亦不反對	稍微同意	部分同意	完全同意

1. 我很樂意把往後的職業生涯都投注在此俱樂部。--------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. 對我而言，即使我想離開本此俱樂部，還是很難下決心那麼做。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. 我覺得我沒有義務繼續留在這裡。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. 我覺得這家俱樂部的問題就像我自己的問題。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. 如果我現在決定離開這家俱樂部，那可能大大打亂我的生活。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. 即使離開目前這工作環境對我較有利，我也不覺得這麼做是對的。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. 在此俱樂部中我並沒有屬於「家中一份子」的感覺。---1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. 繼續在這家俱樂部工作已是我必然的需求。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. 如果我現在離職，我會感到內疚。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. 在情感上我並未覺得我屬於此俱樂部。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. 我如果離開此俱樂部，並無太多其他的選擇。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. 我覺得此俱樂部値得我對其表示忠誠。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. 能成爲本俱樂部的一分子對我個人而言意義重大。------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. 缺乏其他替代性的選擇會是離開俱樂部的少數幾項負面結果之一。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. 我對此俱樂部的人所持的責任感讓我難以離開。--------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. 在此工作並未給我強烈的歸屬感。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. 離開俱樂部需付出相當大的犧牲也是我繼續在此工作的原因之一。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. 我對此俱樂部心存感激。-------1 2 3 4 5 6 7

第肆部份 工作滿意度評估量表

本部分共有 20 題，目的在評量你對工作環境的滿意度。請依據下面每一題的描述圈選出你的看法。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
非常 不同意	部分 不同意	稍微 不同意	既不同意 亦不反對	稍微同意	部分同意	完全同意

1. 我覺得我所領取的工作酬勞相當合理。---------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. 我覺得我的工作晉升機會並不多。-------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. 我認為我的主管有能力勝任他/她的工作。---------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. 我與同事共事愉快。--1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. 有時我會覺得我的工作無意義。--------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. 我覺得此工作環境中並不常有加薪的情形。--------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. 我認為如果我把工作做好，就有晉升的機會。-----------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. 我不認為我的主管公平對待我。--------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. 我的工作因同事能力不足而加重。-----------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. 我喜歡我的工作職責。------------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. 我不很滿意我的工作報酬。-------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. 我覺得這裡的工作人員晉升速度和其他地方一樣快。---1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. 我認為我的主管不夠在意他部署的感受。----------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. 我喜歡與我共事的人。------------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. 我以我的工作為傲。--------------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. 我覺得我的加薪機會相當合理。--------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. 我對晉升的機會感到滿意。-------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. 我喜歡我的主管。---1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. 我的同事間衝突太多。------------------------------------1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. 我喜歡我的工作。---1 2 3 4 5 6 7

本問卷到此全部結束，謝謝您的合作!

January 10 2003

Dear Sport/Fitness Club employee,

This is a purely academic questionnaire, which will be used to investigate the relationships between the leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction within sport/fitness clubs in Taiwan. Please take a little time to fill out this questionnaire. Your answers will provide a great contribution to the operation and development of sports/fitness clubs in Taiwan as well as to academic studies.

There are no specific right or wrong answers to these questions. Please answer each question truthfully and with careful consideration. This questionnaire is voluntary and will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The information collected from this questionnaire will be kept ANONYMOUS and will be applied for dissertation analysis and research only. Your response will be kept confidential and will not be revealed to any one inside or outside your organization. Please feel secure in filling out this questionnaire and return it to the researcher.

Thank you for your cooperation and participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Kuei-Mei Cheng

Kuei-Mei Cheng, Doctoral candidate
United States Sports Academy

SECTION ONE: Background Information

This section contains statements concerning general information about the participant. Please fill in the blanks or check the appropriate box that best describes your situation.

1. Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male
2. Education: ☐Elementary school ☐Junior high school ☐Senior high school ☐Junior college ☐University ☐Graduate school
3. Marital Status: ☐Single ☐Married ☐Divorced ☐Widowed
4. Major Studied: ☐Science and engineering ☐Business ☐Allied health professions ☐Liberal arts or criminal justice ☐Social science ☐Agriculture ☐Physical education or recreational sports ☐Other
5. How long have you worked with this supervisor? ______ years and ______ months

SECTION TWO: Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

The purpose of this section, with a total of 30 descriptive statements about various leadership behaviors and activities, is to evaluate the leadership behaviors of your supervisor. Please circle the frequency rating of your supervisor's behavior attributes according to the following score scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Rarely	Once in a While	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Frequently

He or she:

1. seeks challenging opportunities to test his or her abilities and skills.. 1 2 3 4 5
2. makes an effort to describe a type of future for us to create together. 1 2 3 4 5
3. is able to develop cooperative relationships.. 1 2 3 4 5
4. sets a good example of what is expected of his/her employees. 1 2 3 4 5
5. makes sure to praise people for a job well done. 1 2 3 4 5
6. challenges us to try new approaches. 1 2 3 4 5
7. is able to describe a compelling vision of the future of this organization. 1 2 3 4 5
8. is willing to listen to diverse points of view... 1 2 3 4 5
9. ensures that my coworkers and I adhere to the agreed upon standards1 .... 1 2 3 4 5

1	2	3	4	5
Rarely	Once in a While	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Frequently

10. expresses confidence in our abilities. 1 2 3 4 5
11. looks outside our organization for ways to improve, staying up-to-date on recent developments. 1 2 3 4 5
12. appeals to us to share his/her dreams of the future. 1 2 3 4 5
13. treats myself and my coworkers with respect and dignity. 1 2 3 4 5
14. follows through on his/her promises and commitments. 1 2 3 4 5
15. is creative in his/her rewards for people's contributions. 1 2 3 4 5
16. looks for ways to learn when unexpected things happen. 1 2 3 4 5
17. shows us how our long-term interests can be realized. 1 2 3 4 5
18. creates an atmosphere of mutual trust in the workplace. 1 2 3 4 5
19. makes his/her philosophy of leadership clear. 1 2 3 4 5
20. makes sure to recognize people for their commitment to shared values. 1 2 3 4 5
21. takes risks and experiments with new ideas even if failure is possible. 1 2 3 4 5
22. shows enthusiasm and optimism about the future. 1 2 3 4 5
23. lets us choose how to do our own work. 1 2 3 4 5
24. makes sure to set goals, plans, and milestones. 1 2 3 4 5
25. makes sure to find ways to celebrate accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5
26. takes the initiative to attempt to overcome obstacles. 1 2 3 4 5
27. speaks with conviction about the meaning of our work. 1 2 3 4 5
28. involves us in planning of future actions. 1 2 3 4 5
29. takes one step at a time in order to progress toward goals, breaking projects into chunks. 1 2 3 4 5
30. provides appreciation and support for contributions. 1 2 3 4 5

SECTION THREE: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

The purpose of this part, totaling 18 questions, is to assess the general feelings of the employees of your company towards this organization. Please answer the questions according to your feelings toward the organization for which you work and indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling one of the seven alternatives beside each statement:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I feel that if I spent the rest of my career in this organization, I would be happy. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Even if I wanted to, it would be difficult for me to leave this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I feel no obligation to remain here. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I feel that if this organization has a problem, it is my problem as well. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. If I decided to leave this organization right now, it would be too disruptive to my life. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I do not feel that it would be right for me to leave my workplace now, even if it were to my advantage to do so. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I do not feel as if I belong to the "family" in my organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. If I left my job now, I would feel guilty. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I do not feel attached to this organization emotionally. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I feel that if I left, there would be too few options available to me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I feel my loyalty to this organization is deserved. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. It means a great deal to me personally to belong to this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I have a sense of obligation to the people of this organization that prevents me from leaving. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Working here does not give me a strong sense of belonging. . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. The fact that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons I continue to work here. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I feel that I owe a great deal to this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SECTION FOUR: Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The purpose of this part, totaling 20 questions, is to evaluate your level of job satisfaction within your workplace. Please circle the number that best represents your opinion about each question.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I feel the amount I am paid is fair for the work that I do. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I feel there are not many chances for promotion for my job... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I feel my supervisor is competent for the job he/she does. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I enjoy working with my colleagues.. .... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Sometimes I feel there is no meaning to my work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I feel raises are not given very often at my workplace............ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I feel if I do my job well, there is a fair chance that I can be promoted.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I do not feel that my supervisor is fair to me........................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Incompetent coworkers make my job harder. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I like my job responsibilities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. The amount I am paid for the work I do makes me feel unappreciated... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I feel people here can advance as quickly as in other places. . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I do not feel that my supervisor shows enough interest in his/her subordinates' feelings. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I enjoy the people I work with.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. When I do my job, I feel a sense of pride................................ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I feel my chances of salary increases are fair. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. My chances for being promoted here satisfy me..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I am fond of my supervisor. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. There is too much conflict between among my coworkers..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. I enjoy my job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Thanks for your participation!

APPENDIX B

THE LIST OF THE SPORT, HEALTH, & FITNESS CLUBS IN TAIWAN

English Version

1. DNA Sports Club
2. Merry Health Center (Taichung Branch)
3. Sun-Fish Sport Club
4. Green Forest Fitness Club
5. Modern Gym Fitness Store
6. Taipei Sport Club
7. Hwa-Kuo Club
8. Hua-Kuo Club
9. Linden Hotel
10. Supershape Health Club (Pate Branch)
11. Supershape Health Club (Duenhua Branch)
12. California Fitness Center
13. Gold's Health Center
14. Action Center
15. Olympia Gym
16. The Howard Fitness Center
17. Avnce Health Club
18. Sun-Fish Sport Club (Tucheng Branch)
19. Family Life Club
20. Integrate Ho City Club
21. Spa World Health Club
22. Vogue Lady's Club
23. PLAY-UP Health & Fitness Center (Daan Branch)
24. Pre's Realum Health & Fitness Center (Chanchien Branch)
25. Chinhui Health Center
26. Pacific Club (Jungli Branch)
27. My Island Club
28. Tokyo Health Club
29. Green Health Club
30. Taiyuen Fitness Center
31. Action & Power Gym
32. Sunny Fitness Center
33. World Gym Club

34. Is Spa Fitness Club
35. Mercantile Athletic Club
36. Energic Studio Club
37. World Gym Club
38. Merry Health Center
39. Resort Davisds International Club
40. Kevin's Health Club
41. The Landmark Club
42. Pacific International Business Club (Duenhua Branch)
43. Taipei World Trade Center Club
44. Paris International Club
45. The Green Life & Fitness Center
46. Anya Fitness Sports Club
47. Energy Island Club
48. A.S.E. Suites Reservation Center
49. Rebar Crowne Resorts Taipei (Health Club)
50. Hotel Royal-Taipei Health Club
51. Caribbean Health Club
52. Agora Garden
53. Lai-Lai Gasthof Jahn Center
54. The Far Eastern Plaza Hotel (Health Club)
55. Asiaworld Hotel (Health Center)
56. Howard Beach Resort Pacific Green Bay
57. Evergreen Laurel Hotel of Gym
58. Grand Formosa (TaiChung)
59. The Grand Hotel (KaoSiung)
60. Kentington Resort
61. The Splendor (KaoSiung)
62. The Westin Taipei (Olympus)
63. Ta-Shee Resort (Sport Clubs)
64. Art Fitness & Spa (Jungli Branch)
65. Rhey Kwang Recreation Club
66. Pacific Club (Kaohsiung Branch)
67. KG Resort Recreation Club
68. Taipei Gym

69. Eleya
70. Apollo Gym
71. Always Club
72. Keelung Peak Health Center
73. Aegius Club
74. Art Fitness & Spa
75. Sunny Fitness Center
76. Pacific Country Club
77. Mandara Life Club
78. Family Life Club
79. Yamin Garden Health Club
80. Spa Therapy Center
81. Genesis Fitness
82. Beckham Fitness
83. King Fitness Center
84. The Royal Balibay
85. Flamingo Imternational Holiday Resort
86. Integrate Health World
87. Spa Fitness Center
88. Water World Health Club
89. Ambassador Hsiuchu
90. Maxmania Gym Club
91. Techbody Fitness Center
92. Alexander Health Club (Taichung Branch)
93. Alexander Health Club (Tainan Branch)
94. Alexander Health Club (Kaohsiung Branch)
95. Alexander Health Club (Shinjuang Branch)
96. Alexander Health Club (Junggang Branch)
97. Alexander Health Club (Neihu Branch)
98. Alexander Health Club (Sanchung Branch)
99. Alexander Health Club (Wenshin Branch)
100. Alexander Health Club (Chanchien Branch)
101. Alexander Health Club (Shihmao Branch)
102. Alexander Health Club (Tunnan Branch)
103. Alexander Health Club (Kungkuan Branch)

104. Alexander Health Club (Nankang Branch)
105. Alexander Health Club (Yungho Branch)
106. Youth Camp Health Club (Chunghsiao Branch)
107. Youth Camp Health Club (Neihu Branch)
108. Youth Camp Health Club (Yungho Branch)
109. Youth Camp Health Club (Panchiao Branch)
110. Youth Camp Health Club (Taoyuan Branch)
111. Youth Camp Health Club (Sanchung Branch)
112. Youth Camp Health Club (Chengchung Branch)
113. Youth Camp Health Club (Kuting Branch)
114. Youth Camp Health Club (Nanching Branch)
115. Youth Camp Health Club (Tienmu Branch)
116. Sun-Fish Sport Club (Hsinyi Branch)
117. Cheng-Mei Health Center
118. Ta-Tung Health Club
119. Diamond Health Sport Center
120. Chuan-Chi-Sheng Sport Word
121. Gold Rotary International Health Club
122. Home Health Club
123. Chi-Ti Health Club
124. Eastern Health Club
125. Magnolia Hotel Health Club
126. National Hotel Health Center
127. Med Health Club
128. Yungho Health Center
129. Chia-Chia Active Spa Therapy Club

Chinese Version

1.DNA 運動俱樂部
2.美力健身房（台中）
3.桑裕運動俱樂部
4.綠山林體適能健身韻律俱樂部
5.現代健身韻律俱樂部
6.大台北健康運動聯誼社
7.皇朝會俱樂部
8.華國俱樂部
9.霖園商務聯誼社
10.中興健身俱樂部（八德會館）
11.中興健身俱樂部（敦南會館）
12.加州健身俱樂部
13.金牌健身俱樂部
14.活力補給站
15.奧林匹亞健身世界
16.台北福華飯店健身俱樂部
17.雅風健身俱樂部（晶華酒店）
18.桑富士運動俱樂部（土城分部）
19.桃企生活俱樂部
20.統一健康世界俱樂部
21.水都休閒健康俱樂部
22.名媛時尚仕女俱樂部
23.沛力雅健身俱樂部（大安店）
24.沛力雅健身俱樂部(站前店)
25.金輝健身中心
26.太平洋都會生活俱樂部（中壢分部）
27.活水健康世界
28.東京健身俱樂部
29.綠的世界健康俱樂部
30.台元健身中心
31.原動力健身中心
32.金太陽健身生活館
33.世界健身俱樂部
34.伊士邦健康俱樂部

35.瑪鮨健身廣場
36.活力健身休閒俱樂部
37.世界健身俱樂部
38.美力健身中心
39.大衛營國際俱樂部
40.凱越健康俱樂部
41.天母國際聯誼會
42.太平洋聯誼社（ 敦化南路 ）
43.台北世界貿易中心聯誼社
44.巴黎國際聯誼會
45.綠原健身俱樂部
46.安雅體適能運動俱樂部
47.三芝熱帶嶼俱樂部
48.日月光飯店
49.力霸皇冠健身俱樂部
50.台北老爺酒店健身俱樂部
51.家樂比健康俱樂部
52.亞太會館
53.來來飯店會員俱樂部
54.遠東飯店健身中心
55.環亞大飯店健身中心
56.太平洋福華翡翠灣俱樂部
57.長榮桂冠酒店健身中心
58.中港晶華雅風俱樂部
59.高雄圓山聯誼會
60.小墾丁綠野渡假村
61.高雄晶華雅風俱樂部
62.六福皇宮附屬俱樂部
63.鴻禧大溪別館
64.雅姿舒活家（ 中壢分部 ）
65.惠光休閒運動俱樂部
66.太平洋都會生活俱樂部（ 高雄館 ）
67.和信生活家休閒俱樂部
68.台北健身院
69.伊莉雅 SPA 仕女生活館

70.波羅男女健身中心
71.奧偉全方位健康俱樂部
72.基隆高峰健身中心
73.亞爵會館
74.雅姿舒活家
75.金太陽健身生活館
76.太平洋鄉村俱樂部
77.永豐棧生活會館
78.桃企生活健康世界
79.陽明花園健身俱樂部
80.水琳瀧養生水療管
81.創世紀生活廣場
82.貝克漢運動健康俱樂部
83.皇牌健美中心
84.地中海國際中心
85.佛朗明哥渡假俱樂部
86.統一健康世界
87.輔大名人水療健康世界
88.雙和健康生活世界
89.國賓大飯店附屬俱樂部
90.MAXMANIA GYM
91.泰克巴締體適能健身中心
92.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（台中分部）
93.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（台南分部）
94.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（高雄分部）
95.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（新莊分部）
96.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（中港分部）
97.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（內湖分部）
98.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（三重分部）
99.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（文心分部）
100.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（站前分部）
101.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（世貿分部）
102.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（敦南分部）
103.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（公館分部）
104.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（南港分部）

105.亞歷山大健康俱樂部（永和分部）
106.佳姿氧生工程館（忠孝分部）
107.佳姿氧生工程館　（ 內湖分部 ）
108.佳姿氧生工程館（永和分部）
109.佳姿氧生工程館（板橋分部）
110.佳姿氧生工程館（ 桃園分部 ）
111.佳姿氧生工程館（ 三重分部 ）
112.佳姿氧生工程館（ 城中分部 ）
113.佳姿氧生工程館（ 古亭分部 ）
114.佳姿氧生工程館（ 南京分部 ）
115.佳姿氧生工程館（ 天母分部 ）
116.桑富士運動俱樂部（信義分部）
117.天美健身中心
118.大統健康俱樂部
119.鑽石健身運動中心
120.全啓昇運動世界
121.金扶輪國際健身俱樂部
122.傳家堡健康俱樂部
123.激體健身俱樂部
124.東方健康俱樂部
125.中泰賓館附設健身俱樂部
126.全國大飯店附設健身中心
127.地中海健康休閒俱樂部
128.永和健身院
129.佳佳活力康體水療俱樂部

APPENDIX C

LISREL PROGRAM FOR THE MEASUREMENT MODEL OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

```
! lead LISREL
Observed Variables:
lead1 - lead5
Raw data from file c:/km2/lead.dat
Sample Size: = 469
Latent Variables: lead
Relationships:
lead1 - lead5 = lead
path diagram
LISREL output sc mi ad = 500
end of problem
```

APPENDIX D

LISREL PROGRAM FOR THE MEASUREMENT MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

```
! Com LISREL
Observed Variables:
com1 - com3
Raw data from file c:/km2/com.dat
Sample Size: = 469
Latent Variables: com
Relationships:
com1 - com3 = com
path diagram
LISREL output sc mi ad = 500
end of problem
```

APPENDIX E

LISREL PROGRAM FOR THE MEASUREMENT MODEL OF JOB SATISFACTION

```
!Job LISREL
Observed Variables:
job1 - job5
Raw data from file c:/km2/job2.dat
Sample Size: = 469
Latent Variables:    job
Relationships:
job1 - job5 = job
path diagram
LISREL output sc mi ad = 500
end of problem
```

APPENDIX F

LISREL PROGRAM FOR THE FULL SEM MODEL

```
! Full SEM Model LISREL
Observed Variables:
lead1 lead2 lead3 lead4 lead5 com1 com2 com3 job1 job2 job3 job4 job5
Raw data from file c:\km2\fullmodel.dat
sample size = 469
latent variables: lead com job
Relationships:
lead1 - lead5 = lead
com1 - com3 = com
job1 - job5 = job
Paths
lead -> com job
com -> job
path diagram
LISREL output mi ad=500
end of problem
```

Covariance Matrix

	com1	com2	com3	job1	job2	job3
com1	0.79					
com2	0.50	1.00				
com3	0.53	0.72	1.01			
job1	0.24	0.32	0.30	0.88		
job2	0.28	0.29	0.38	0.41	0.89	
job3	0.45	0.39	0.50	0.26	0.40	0.89
job4	0.33	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.36	0.43
job5	0.41	0.25	0.31	0.33	0.30	0.34
lead1	0.24	0.30	0.38	0.23	0.27	0.34
lead2	0.27	0.30	0.39	0.20	0.30	0.32
lead3	0.27	0.34	0.43	0.21	0.30	0.34
lead4	0.27	0.34	0.41	0.22	0.29	0.35
lead5	0.28	0.34	0.41	0.22	0.27	0.33

Covariance Matrix

	job4	job5	lead1	lead2	lead3	lead4	lead5
job4	0.99						
job5	0.31	0.85					
lead1	0.35	0.18	0.54				
lead2	0.29	0.20	0.43	0.57			
lead3	0.32	0.19	0.43	0.45	0.58		
lead4	0.30	0.18	0.40	0.44	0.48	0.58	
lead5	0.29	0.21	0.40	0.43	0.44	0.42	0.53